

EMPLOYEE THEFT PREDICTORS: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW
MASTER'S THESIS

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UNIVERSIDAD CATÓLICA DE COLOMBIA
FACULTY OF PSYCHOLOGY
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En Bogotá a los tres (3) días del mes de septiembre del año 2019, se reunieron los suscritos miembros del Comité de Maestría en Psicología, para evaluar y otorgar la calificación final al trabajo de grado presentado por el estudiante **WILSON FERNANDO VELANDIA BAUTISTA** titulado: **"PREDICTORES DEL ROBO POR EMPLEADOS: UNA REVISIÓN SISTEMÁTICA"**.

Una vez revisada el acta del examen de sustentación y de conformidad con los criterios establecidos por la dirección del programa, se ratificó la calificación de los jurados dada en la sustentación pública:

APROBADA


Dra. IDALY BARRETO GALEANO
Decana


MARÍA MARGARITA ROZO SÁNCHEZ
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DEDICATION

To my family, especially mother, brother and grandmother. They are my constant support.

To Pili, for her company, encouragement and inspiration in this journey.

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EMPLOYEE THEFT PREDICTORS: A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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ABSTRACT

The theft committed by people in their role as employees has been a continuing problem in the organizational and social context. Comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon is key to its mitigation. This paper proposes a systematic review to analyze individual-situational empirical evidence on the reasons why employees commit theft. To achieve this objective, the explanatory approaches associated with employee theft were described, their empirical evidence was consolidated and the predictive power of the variables was examined. The inclusion criteria included studies in English and Spanish language published between 2008 and 2018 with optics in the individual-situational interaction, both as an involuntary consequence of pressures, as well as by premeditation. The theft covered any type of property, of people in the organizational context, and towards financial jurisdiction. As a search strategy, nine electronic databases were included to identify published and unpublished studies with empirical evidence. Thirty-one search strings were generated. The documents eligible for inclusion were 171 and continued with the next coding phase. Of these, six met the inclusion criteria, their criteria and predictor variables were quantitatively analyzed, effect sizes were calculated, contextualized and compared with each other. The main results show that the approaches of Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWB) and Deviant Behaviors at work (DB) predominate over Unethical Behavior (UB), with a tendency towards situational variables. The strategy of self-reports as information gathering was the generalized tool. There was little evidence to verify theft behavior by employees. The use of both moderating and mediating variables was limited, conditioned on perceived behavioral control, intention to steal and internal control systems. The results, the limitations of the field, the selected studies and the systematic review were discussed. Finally, the implications for research and practice are mentioned.

Keywords: Systematic review, theft, steal, employee, unethical behavior, counterproductive work behaviors, deviant behaviors at work, corruption.

The behaviors originated by employees that threaten the welfare of organizations can range from physical violence to sabotage (Griffin & López, 2005) including theft, decreased work effort, insubordination, absenteeism, misuse of information, or harassment (Kidwell Jr & Kochanowski, 2005).

Employers have dealt with this type of behavior since the beginning of the Industrial Revolution (Klotz & Buckley, 2013), among which theft stands out as one of the most serious (Kennedy, 2017; Moorthy, Seetharaman, Jaffar, & Foong, 2015), considered a serious problem in human resources management (Harvey, Martinko, & Borkowski, 2017), with high financial and social costs (Hollinger & Davis, 2006; Pedneault, 2010), with repercussions on the morale of the members of the company (Peters & Maniam, 2016), even with legal restrictions to fire dishonest employees (Christopher, 2003).

The motivation for which employees commit such actions has been the interest of researchers in behavioral ethics, especially in the last 20 years (Fox & Spector, 2005; Raver, 2013; Wei & Si, 2013), who in their effort to understand the phenomenon have made important contributions, largely with correlational and causal approaches from individual and situational approaches.

Researchers like Hershcovis et al. (2007), Klotz and Buckley (2013), suggest empirically integrating these multiple sets of predictors to more fully understand this issue, so they have highlighted the high degree of complexity underlying unethical choices, as well as criticism of explanations for one or two dominant variables (Kish-Gephart, Harrison, & Treviño, 2010; McClurg & Butler, 2006). In fact, this type of behavior is multicausal where individual and situational characteristics interact (Bandura, 2002; Harvey et al., 2017; Lefkowitz, 2009).

In general, explanations with exclusionary approaches have been observed in the literature, that is, there have been few efforts focused on understanding the similarities rather than their differences (Kidder, 2005; Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Treviño, 1986) with the purpose of their holistic articulation, especially when most of these models have been limited in empirical research, not in vain, the current development of the field (Ford & Richardson, 1994). In this regard, the classic quotation of Zeaman (1959), becomes important, when it refers to holding on the shoulders of those who have gone before, where each generation takes a step in front of its predecessors, instead of integrating a theory, try to contrast it empirically and

polishing conceptual approaches, efforts have been made to find new explanations where somehow the others are dismissed.

Based on the above, and as result of the literature exploration, the closest documents found have been reviews (Baharom, Sharfuddin, & Iqbal, 2017; Craft, 2013; Gaitonde, Oxman, Okebukola, & Rada, 2016; Hussain, Sia, & Mishra, 2014; Loe, Ferrell, & Mansfield, 2000; Lefkowitz, 2009; Narayanan & Murphy, 2017; O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005; Randall & Gibson, 1990; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998; Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Simpson, Rorie, Alper, & Schell-Busey, 2014; Tenbrunsel & Smith-Crowe, 2008; Treviño, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006) and meta-analysis (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Kish-Gephart et al., 2010; Lau, Wing Tung, & Ho, 2003; Sulea, Maricuțoiu, Dumitru, & Pitariu, 2015).

Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to analyze the empirical evidence of the individual-situational explanatory perspectives on the reasons why employees commit theft. To achieve this objective, the methodology known as systematic review will be used, which will be explained later in the section of the method referred to in this document.

Next, employee theft will be defined and the related constructs will be described. Subsequently, its dimensionality will be mentioned, as well as the differences between unethical behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. Then, academic research strategies to establish the achievement of employee theft will be mentioned. Later, the explanatory perspectives on employee theft will be addressed, from both individual and situational approaches, each with corresponding frames of reference. Then, the method will be developed and the results will be compiled. Finally, the discussion topics will be raised.

Employee Theft: Definitions and Related Constructs

Definitions of Employee Theft. Altheide, Adler, Alder, and Altheide (1978) define it as taking by employees of the organization's property without authorization. On the other hand, Hollinger and Clark (1983b) described it as the taking, control or transfer of money or property of the organization, without authorization, by the employee during his work activity. Meanwhile, Klotz and Buckley (2013) point to it as the intentional and illegal removal of company property and subsequent personal transfer. It can also be seen as a form of aggression towards the organization in an attempt to harm (Neuman & Baron, 1997).

From the definitions of theft, it is described as any unauthorized taking of ownership and money of the organization by employees (Greenberg & Barling, 1996; Lau et al. 2003). However, the theft of information, securities, merchandise, equipment, tools, equipment, stationery, and supplies are not mentioned promptly. In the aforementioned definitions, the theft that as an employee commits not only to the organization but to the people with whom he/she interacts is left out, an issue addressed by Bennett and Robinson (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995) when they make the distinction in their typology of deviant workplace behaviors on interpersonal deviation, by relating the theft to co-workers, although the researchers do not include clients or users as victims.

Another form of theft dismissed by the definitions corresponds to those that can be committed as an employee against the same country, in terms of taxes or conspicuous activities for its fraud, or towards competition, aspects related to the concept of corruption (Transparency International, 2009).

As can be seen, the facets of employee theft are different, but a comprehensive approach to their dimensions is scarce (Kennedy, 2016; Sauser Jr., 2007). These precisions towards the referred context of the theft construct, becomes especially important when it is sought to define it operationally, producing partialized measurements of the conceptual domains mainly affecting its content validity.

Constructs Related to Employee Theft. In academic literature, employee theft has generally been framed in the following dominant constructs: Unethical Behavior (UB) (Ford & Richardson, 1994; Jones, 1991; Lefkowitz, 2009; Lewis, 1985), Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB) (Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2005) or Deviance Behavior (DB) (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Likewise, other constructs have addressed them: organizational deviance (Vaughan, 1999), misbehavior in organizations (Vardi & Wiener, 1996), workplace aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998; Spector & Fox, 2005) antisocial behavior at work (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998), bad behavior in organizations (Griffin & Lopez, 2005), among others. As a starting point, defining and differentiating these constructs is decisive, because depending on the verbal label in question, their understanding and explanation varies significantly.

Unethical Behavior (UB). The UB is a higher-order (latent) construct (Chen & Tang, 2006). In its broadest conception it is defined as the violation of rules, standards, codes or

principles that give guidelines for morally correct behavior (Lewis, 1985). According to Gauthier (2008) mentioned by Lefkowitz (2009) his deontological meaning argues with the violation of widely accepted moral principles such as respect, benevolence (obligation to do good, when appropriate and feasible), no malice (universal obligation to unjustifiably avoid causing harm), righteousness, justice and interpersonal virtues such as fidelity, responsibility, integrity and legitimate fulfillment of duties and obligations.

Among similar definitions and constructs this is the oldest and nomologically richest domain, which emerges from the long history of moral philosophy, mostly from Western thought and the study of moral development in psychology in the past 75 years, to be widely applied to the study of business ethics from the level of the individual to the organizational level. Although authors such as Jones (1991) have highlighted the difficulty of establishing definitions for ethical behavior, perhaps because of this, most studies on ethical decision making do not offer a clear definition of “ethical” behavior or conduct (Ford & Richardson, 1994; Randall & Gibson, 1990). In this regard, Lefkowitz (2009), argues that as a dependent variable it should be better called “unethical” than “ethical”, consequently to what Kish-Gephart et al. (2010) called unethical choice, such as unethical intention and UB.

Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB). It is generally defined as any intentional behavior against the interests of an organization committed by its members (Sackett & DeVore, 2001). The key component of the CWB is that the conduct must be intentional and not accidental, that is, the employee makes the decision specifically aimed at harming through intentional actions, even if involuntarily (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Deviance Behavior (DB). In essence its definition is similar to CWB. Kaplan (1975), mentioned by Robinson and Bennett (1995) defines it as voluntary behavior that seriously violates the organizational rules jeopardizing the welfare of the organization, its members or both.

As it is perceived, perhaps the problem is not the operational definitions, but what they exclude or do not mention, the issue points to the lack of coordination of the different operational definitions and consequently the subsequent difficulties that are woven on the same concepts (Machado, Lourenço, & Silva, 2000).

Dimensionality of Constructs Associated with Employee Theft

Establishing mastery of behaviors over previous constructs, that is, their dimensionality has been another concern of researchers. Therefore, DB (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) and CWB scholars (Sackett, 2002; Spector et al., 2006) have worked on it. It is so in its review and meta-analysis Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, and Weigelt (2016) frame them together as the most prominent models in the CWB literature. Of these models, Robinson and Bennett (1995) promptly refer to the theft of the company and theft of coworkers. On the other hand, Spector et al. (2006) relate theft, and Gruys and Sackett (2003) to theft and related behaviors. Therefore, for this work, DBs are mentioned interchangeably together with CWBs.

On the other hand, terms as influential in the corporate world as work ethic and corruption have not had a methodological approach to statistical validation in their dimensionality. Transparency International in its “The anti-corruption plain language guide” defines terms related to the theft in which they stand out: collusion, extortion, fraud, solicitation, money laundering, embezzlement, facilitation payments, bribery, revolving door (Transparency International, 2009), many of them committed by people who access a high social status in their employment, which coined in 1940 Edwin Sutherland as white collar crimes (Sutherland, 1940). In these strategies, the trust granted through an occupation or position in public (Jain, 2001) or private organizations is abused to obtain their own benefit or for others expressed in economic gain, or access to rights.

So far, it can be concluded that the employee can commit theft both to the property of the same organization, its partners, supervisors, suppliers, customers or users, as well as to other organizations and even to the same country or other governments.

Differences Between UB and CWB or DB

Another key point, in addition to the definitions and dimensionality of the constructs related to employee theft are their differences. In principle, Robinson and Bennett (1995) alluding to Lewis (1985) contrast the workplace deviance and ethics in the sense that the former studies behavior that violates organizational norms while the latter focuses on correct or incorrect behavior in terms of justice, law or other social guidelines. Illustrating the above, both behaviors that violate organizational norms (conflict of interest such as giving and receiving gifts to influence business relationships) and those that do not (lying to clients) do not break widely

accepted social norms or are considered illegal. However, because of the widespread agreement that they are wrong, these behaviors are defined as unethical behaviors (Kish-Gephart et al., 2010).

Therefore, theft is considered unethical and illegal. Now, this type of action can be done intentionally and voluntarily, more common optics and worked by the CWB and DB (Sackett & DeVore, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2005), which have their foundations from the rationalist perspective including the concept of *Homo Economicus* (Gonin, Palazzo, & Hoffrage, 2012) and the metaphor of bad apples (Furnham & Taylor, 2011). However, such behavior can also be committed as an involuntary or unavoidable consequence of pressures, perhaps trying to “do the right thing”, but succumbing to selfish temptation or finally not adequately resolving a situation of conflict of values (Lefkowitz, 2009; Palazzo, Krings, & Hoffrage, 2012; Sonenshein, 2007) perspective more worked by UBs.

Additionally, the employee may think that their UB is justified under the circumstances, perhaps because they are permissible or tolerated in the organization and, therefore, defensible in their particular situation (Harvey et al., 2017).

Traditionally, the theory of the ethical decision-making process has followed a rationalist paradigm. More recently, research on biased decision making and intuitive judgment (Gigerenzer, 2009; Reynolds, Leavitt, & DeCelles, 2010) with emotional components (Haidt, 2001) have raised questions about the desirability of this rationalist assumption. To this, the neuropsychological evidence on the dual processing of information (Evans, 2008; Spunt, 2015; Stanovich & West, 2000) that account for the dimensional scheme in automatic and controlled processes originated in brain circuits are added. With the reason in question, other related assumptions are also on unstable ground. For example, a non-rational and biased process suggests that we can mistakenly reach false conclusions, thinking that what we are doing is correct, when in reality it is inconsistent with the principles of ethics. Therefore, the result of moral decision making, intended to be ethical, can produce a different result (Tenbrunsel & Smith-Crowe, 2008).

Academic Research Strategies on Employee Theft Predictors

In general, the investigation of employee theft is a problematic issue since depending on its severity it can imply consequences from letters of reprimand, internal investigations,

dismissals, to legal aspects for offenders. Most of these undesirable actions remain unnoticed, anonymous, or unobservable (Kennedy, 2016; Rogelberg, 2007; Spector & Fox, 2002) many of them in silent complicity.

Historically, Donald Cressey's work on embezzlers in organizations (Cressey, 1953) was an important starting point for the qualitative description of the employee theft. In his book on the social psychology of embezzlement, the author interviewed convicted embezzlers who, according to their findings, had pressure on their lives from financial problems. In that sense, authors such as Dabil (2005), Hollinger and Clark (1983a), Merton (1968) include in their work the economic issue of employees as a key factor in triggering theft.

One of Cressey's greatest contributions was to document how embezzlers rationalized their behavior, basically because of the unfair treatment received. From these approaches he based his theory which he called the fraud triangle, consisting of three key elements: pressure, opportunity, and rationalization (Abdullahi & Mansor, 2015; Mui & Mailley, 2015), benchmark of what other authors have called the fraud diamond (Ruankaew, 2016; Wolfe & Hermanson, 2004). In Cressey's qualitative perspective, mainly went to open and semi-structured interviews with offenders (Greenberg & Tomlinson, 2004).

Another strategy to perceive the employee theft is the observational technique of ethnographic research, based on infiltration or work under cover of researchers as employees to establish links with the perpetrators. Here, interviews with informant employees are used (Greenberg & Tomlinson, 2004).

Derived from the problems that arise to determine the employee theft, a methodological aspect with sufficient acceptance that the part of the statistical quantitative budgets, used in psychology for the measurement of their constructions, has focused on the self-reports applied to employees. Among the most used by research, two stand out: Bennett and Robinson (2000) and Spector et al. (2006). When employees are guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity and they are convinced that they can respond without retaliation, self-reports offer an acceptable approach to measuring CWBs (Ones & Dilchert, 2013).

In the stream of self-reports, other measurement tools have included questions for supervisors (Hunt, 1996), coworkers (Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Berry et al., 2007; Sulea, Pitariu, & Maricuțoiu, 2015), subordinates and internal suppliers (Stewart, Bing, Davison,

Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). Using these measurements could be a useful alternative to mitigate the possible limitations of self-reports (Ones & Dilchert, 2013).

In contrast, authors such as Bowling and Gruys (2010) highlight the importance of situation-specific measures, where items are designed depending on the nature of the organization or objective occupation, therefore, highlight the importance of discarding standard items of self-reports as already mentioned. In that sense, authors recognized in their field as Richard Hollinger have turned to their own items to assess theft, although in his work the validation of the items is not found (Hollinger, 1991; Hollinger & Clark, 1983a; Hollinger, Slora, & Terris, 1992).

An alternative for the investigation of employee theft has been behavioral indicators (Ariely, 2008; Ariely, 2012; Greenberg, 2002). Here, participants are placed in a laboratory situation for the behavioral measurement of theft.

Additionally, the method for sensitive random response surveys has been another strategy used. This includes the randomized-response technique and the unmatched-count technique (Wimbush & Dalton, 1997).

Explanatory Perspectives on Employee Theft

Explain why people commit theft in their role as employees has had different theoretical and empirical approaches, mainly of individual, organizational and situational order. An approach in the academic literature in this regard was proposed by Greenberg and Tomlinson (2004) who historically identified four types of studies, in their order: (a) descriptive (describe the phenomenon of interest), (b) analytical (identify the interrelation among the variables that can influence the theft behavior), (c) theoretical (propositions derived from analytical studies), and (d) applied (evaluate the effectiveness of theft reduction techniques).

By consolidating the explanatory perspectives of theft in the organizational context, it seems that a generalized classification among the authors prevails: individual aspects, on the one hand and situational aspects on the other (Kidder, 2005; Moorthy et al., 2015; Nair, & Bhatnagar, 2011; Rogojan, 2009; Treviño, den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014). Then, these perspectives will be outlined with that frame of reference.

Individual Perspectives. Philosophers like Thomas Hobbes (Hobbes, 1962) and illustrious characters such as Jeremy Bentham and Cesare Beccaria have considered the human

being aggressive, selfish and greedy by nature. In this regard, organizational positions such as agency theory (Eisenhardt, 1989), consider that employees will behave opportunistically if they are allowed (Ermongkonchai, 2010; Kidder, 2005), or according to theory X and Y, they will work as little as possible avoiding responsibility, regardless of the needs of the organization (McGregor, 1957).

Personality Traits.

Five-Factor Model. Researchers such as Bennett and Robinson (2003) as well as Douglas and Martinko (2001) support the thesis of the relationship between employee personality traits and their propensity to commit theft. In this perspective, the Model of the Big Five personality and its dimensions: (a) neuroticism, (b) extraversion, (c) openness, (d) agreeableness, and (e) conscientiousness (Costa & McCrae, 1985) represents the most worked approach to field research. From these dimensions, conscientiousness, neuroticism and agreeableness have been related to integrity (Ones & Viswesvaran, 2001; Sackett & Wanek, 1996). In fact, the “conscientiousness” dimension has been the most positively related to the CWBs (Dalal, 2005; Hogan & Ones, 1997; Salgado, 2002) followed by the dimensions of agreeableness and neuroticism (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993) aspects worked in detail in the integrity tests (Marcus, Cremers, & Heijden-Lek, 2016; Sackett & DeVore, 2001).

Honesty-Humility (H-H) or Hexaco Dimension. Some researchers have stressed that integrity is a characteristic of the much narrower responsibility dimension (Murphy & Lee, 1994), conceptually different and therefore deserves special attention (Becker, 1998). It could even form a higher order construct (Ones, 1993) in a sixth dimension called Honesty-Humility (H-H) or Hexaco (Ashton, Lee, & Chongnak Son, 2000; Perugini & Leone, 2009), which contains sub dimensions of sincerity, justice, lack of conceit, and lack of greed (Lee, Ashton, & de Vries, 2005). This could partially explain the variance in integrity beyond the Big Five (Berry, Sackett, & Wiemann, 2007). This perspective has been grounded (Ashton, Lee, & de Vries, 2014; Lee, Ashton, Morrison, Cordery, & Dunlop, 2008) even in populations with different languages (Ashton et al., 2004).

Type A Behavior Pattern: Researchers such as Baron, Neuman, and Geddes (1999), have investigated correlates between the pattern of type A behavior and workplace aggression. Type A and B personality patterns have their roots in the medical field, (Friedman,

George, Byers, & Rosenman, 1960), although research from this perspective has not been relevant compared to the Big Five.

Dark Triad of Personality. Another approach in the previous line is the postulated by Paulhus and Williams (2002) who described a non-pathological personality called the Dark Triad of personality, composed by: (a) Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970), (b) subclinical narcissism (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Raskin & Hall, 1979; Rhodewalt & Peterson, 2009), and (c) subclinical psychopathy (Forth, Brown, Hart, & Hare, 1996; Hare, 1985; Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996). For example, authors like O'Boyle Jr, Forsyth, Banks, and McDaniel (2012) found in their meta-analysis that CWBs were positively associated with scores in the three dimensions of the Dark Triad of personality, although moderated by contextual factors such as authority and culture. However, Cohen (2016) postulated a weak relationship between the components of the Dark Triad of personality and the CWB, perhaps by omitting some mediators and moderators in such interaction. Meanwhile, DeShong, Grant, and Mullins-Sweatt (2015) suggest that a more parsimonious model for dealing with CWBs is not the Dark Triad of personality, but two of the dimensions of the Big Five, agreeableness and conscientiousness, while Book, Visser, and Volk (2015) support the Hexaco model.

Psychobiological Models of Personality. Derived from Hans Eysenck legacy (Eysenck, 1947; Eysenck, 1991), other personality models, such as psychobiologists have tried to explain deviant behaviors. This is the case of the approach proposed by Marvin Zuckerman, regarding the sensation seeking (Zuckerman, 2005; Zuckerman, Kolin, Price, & Zoob, 1964) who proposed a positive relationship of this variable with antisocial behavior and personality (López & López, 2003). On the other hand, Jeffrey Gray, about anxiety and impulsivity (Gray, Owen, Davis, & Tsaltas, 1983) noted that deviant behaviors would be positively related to a high sensitivity to getting rewarding stimuli and a relatively weak susceptibility to punishment; high impulsivity scores and low anxiety scores would be predictors of antisocial behavior (Luengo, Sobral, Romero, & Gómez, 2002). Finally, Robert Cloninger, elaborated his position on the novelty seeking, harm avoidance, and reward dependence (Cloninger, 1986), postulating that high scores in the first, and low in the last two, tend to characterize people with antisocial behaviors (Luengo et al., 2002).

Low Self-Control-Impulsivity. Walter Reckless in the 50s and early 60s with his containment theory he argues that individuals, especially young people, must be contains to

commit deviant acts with internal controls (self-control, self-concept, ego strength) and external (institutional norms, limits and responsibilities, supervision) (Flexon, 2010). Afterwards, Hirschi (1969) delved into these external forces of containment focusing on four elements that he called social bond: attachment (fear of losing respect and affection for others), commitment (with the goals achieved, reputation), involvement (time in activities away from deviant behaviors) and belief (in the moral validity of social norms) (Costello, 2010). Subsequently, Hirschi himself but this time in the company of Gottfredson (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990) they suggested their general theory of crime centered on self-control. Low self-control is an important predictor of deviant behavior (Gino, Schweitzer, Mead, & Ariely, 2011; Marcus, & Schuler, 2004; Siegmunt, 2016).

Locus of control. Rotter (1966) describes a belief in external control if individuals perceive that events depend on luck, destiny, chance, or the complexity around them, in contrast to people with a belief in internal control who attribute contingencies to their own behavior of the events. Researchers like Olabimitan and Alausa (2014) postulate that employees susceptible to the external control locus tend to show DBs compared to those with an internal control locus. Likewise, it acts as a mediating variable between abusive supervision towards theft and sabotage (Weis & Si, 2013).

Negative Affectivity. Watson and Clark (1984) coined the construct “negative affectivity” as a dispositional dimension of the mood denoted in negative emotionality and self-concept. These individuals have a negative perception of themselves that includes anger, contempt, repulsion, guilt, personal dissatisfaction, a sense of rejection and, to some extent, sadness. Researchers have suggested a role between negative affectivity as a moderating variable between labor stressors and CWBs (Penney & Spector, 2005). Likewise, employees with high negative affectivity will engage more in CWBs (Raman, Sambasivan, & Kumar, 2016) and DBs (Alias, Rasdi, & Said, 2012).

Gender. Different authors have been interested in the differences between men and women by engaging in unethical, deviant and/or counterproductive activities. In general, the results seem inconclusive, although the trend suggests that women engage in less unethical activities (Bampton & Maclagan, 2009; O’Fallon & Butterfield, 2005), deviated (Santos & Eger, 2014), and counterproductive (Bowling & Burns, 2015; Spector & Zhou, 2014) than men, although with minimal differences (Ng, Lam, & Feldman, 2016). In this regard, Stedham,

Yamamura, and Beekun (2007) concluded that women carry out stricter judgments than men in the ethical analysis of a problem. However, Gonzalez-Mulé, DeGeest, Kiersch, and Mount (2013) went further when considering gender-related personality factors, indicating that women have greater negative emotional stability (neuroticism), while men have greater negative agreeableness, thus predicting a tendency of both towards the CWBs.

Situational Perspectives.

Organizational Justice. In general terms, it describes that when employees in an organization perceive lack of justice, their morale declines, they are more likely to leave their jobs, and may even retaliate against the organization. In the organizational literature three types of justice are classified: distributive, procedural, and interactional (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). This optic is rooted in Homans (1958) social exchange theory and J. Stacy Adams equity theory (Adams, 1963), what were frames of reference for subsequent distributive justice work of Blau (1964), Thibaut and Walker (1975) procedural justice, and Bies and Moag (1986) interactional justice, construct that later Greenberg (1993) proposed should be divided into two dimensions: interpersonal justice and informational justice (Bies, 2015). Distributive justice and procedural justice have been negatively related to CWBs (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

This concept of organizational justice is similar in academic literature with employee retaliation (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999) as a cognitive response when experiencing injustice (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001) due to inequality and job dissatisfaction (Lau et al., 2003; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), as well as by abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2009; Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone, & Duffy, 2008).

Such situations inevitably account for an emotional substrate in these reactions (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Harvey et al., 2017). Emotions have become so important in this topic (Haidt, 2003; Teper, Zhong, & Inzlicht, 2015) that, for example, the Affective Events Theory has been formulated (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). An explanatory stream of CWBs has been configured in the emotional responses of employees due to stressful organizational conditions (Fox et al., 2001) associated with negative emotions (Fox & Spector, 1999), although the authors recognize a limitation to their model since it can be committed for example, theft, for a variety of instrumental reasons, among others by necessity, independent of the negative feelings towards the organization (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Psychological Contract. Coined by Argyris (1960) referring to the leadership that seeks to maintain the norms of the informal culture of the employee. The psychological contract theory shares budgets of organizational justice, originating in the principles of this (Adams, 1963; Homans, 1958). It assumes that the employee will work for an employer hoping to receive something in return, referring to the idiosyncratic set of reciprocal expectations regarding obligations and rights he deserves as a worker (Ermongkonchai, 2010).

If the employee feels that the organization failed to fulfill these reciprocal obligations, misconduct may occur (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) with the intention of restoring equity (Zoghbi, 2009), although others prefer to resign from their employer (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). The perceptions and experiences that each worker experiences in the organization are different, so that each employee makes their own psychological contract. If the contract is violated relations are damaged and once trust is lost it is difficult to restore (Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993).

This concept is linked to the unwritten commitment of the worker with his employer. Organizations do not have a psychological contract, individuals do (Rousseau, 1989). There are two types of psychological contract: relational and transactional. The first implies a commitment to stability and loyalty, while the second is framed in limited or short-term tasks (Rousseau, 2004). An example of this would be employees with long-term contract and, on the other, contractors.

Just as in organizational justice, in the psychological contract, abusive supervision has important implications for the employee's behavior against the organization as a form of retaliation (Eschleman, Bowling, Michel, & Burns, 2014; Lian et al., 2014).

From the perspective of behavior to the detriment of work, Kidder (2005) theoretically integrated the psychological contract theory, with the trait theory and agency theory. To do this, he made three proposals, correlating the scores of the integrity tests with the deviant behavior, having as moderating variables the level of monitoring/control mechanisms, the type of psychological contract, and the employee's perception of compliance or not psychological contract. Her contribution was to explore the relative influence of the individual differences of the employees against the situation, to generate a greater understanding of behaviors against the organization.

Economic Status. Economic conditions can generate tension in obtaining the desired resources, which since criminology has been conceived as general strain theory (Agnew, 1992). This theory has been based on the assumptions of the social structure and anomie of Merton (1938), bases that later James Tucker (Tucker, 1989) founded to develop the concept of “degree of marginality” with respect to employee theft. Here, Tucker describes that employees who are marginal members of an organization tend to commit more in thefts to their employer. This author raised the following characteristics to determine marginality: (a) low status in the organization; (b) temporary in employment; and (c) social isolation.

Attribution Theory. Martinko et al. (2002) integrated several theoretical perspectives in a framework with particular attention to individual differences based on the causal reasoning theory. The researchers based their approach on the basis of Vroom’s expectancy theory (1964), Skinner’s reinforcement theory (1957), and Bandura’s social learning theory (1977). Its paradigm indicates that CWBs are the result of a complex interaction between the individual and the environment in which the employee’s causal reasoning about his context and the expected results lead him to certain behavior. Here two important elements come into play: (a) the perceptions of disequilibria (for example, injustice or inequity); and (b) attributions or beliefs about that disequilibria, which will trigger the behavior. The authors highlight two types of attributions: internal and external. Internal attributions with feelings of guilt and shame will produce self-destructive behaviors. External attributions or negative cognitive interpretations with feelings of anger and frustration will cause revenge behaviors such as theft, especially when the causes are perceived stable, intentional and without any mitigating circumstance. This behavior from the attributional process is affected by individual moderating differences such as gender, control locus, attribution style (optimistic-pessimistic), self-evaluations (self-concept, self-image, self-esteem, self-efficacy), integrity, and negative affectivity. Although researchers focus on individual attributes, they emphasize the importance of environmental variables such as authoritarian leadership, punitive working conditions, numerous rules and procedures and culture of aggression, as generators of perceptions of disequilibria.

Person-Situation Interactionist Model. In 1986, Linda Treviño proposed a model to explain and predict the ethical decision making of individuals in organizations, which was based on the Kohlberg (1969) model of cognitive moral development in answering ethical dilemmas. Treviño theoretically combined the individual variables such as ego strength, field dependence

and locus of control, with organizational culture variables such as leadership (autocratic-democratic), normative structure, referent others, obedience to authority, responsibility for the consequences, and codes of ethical conduct. Additionally, it took into account the moderating relationships of the contingencies of reinforcement (extrinsic rewards) and other external pressures, namely cost of moral behavior, time pressure, scarce resources and competition. The researcher acknowledges a limitation to the Kohlberg model against cognitions and not behavior, that is, what people think about dilemmas compared to what they would really do (Treviño, 1986).

Other models of ethical decision making have emerged, highlighting the interaction between situational variables and individual variables (Bommer, Gratto, Gravander, & Tuttle, 1987), for example in the field of marketing (Ferrell, Gresham, & Fraedrich, 1989) as well as the approach proposed by Dubinsky and Loken (1989) derived from the theory of reasoned action of Fishbein and Ajzen (1975).

Moral Intensity Model. Jones (1991) based on the model of the four components for ethical decision making of Rest (1986), focuses attention on the moral problem itself, stating that the characteristics of that problem determine ethical decision making. The author describes six characteristics of the problem: (a) magnitude of the consequences, (b) social consensus, (c) probability of effect, (d) temporal immediacy, (e) proximity and (f) concentration of the effect. For his analysis, Jones avoids taking into account the characteristics of the individual and excludes variables from the organizational context, although he recognizes their importance.

Social Learning Theory. This began with the differential association theory of Edwin Sutherland, who called it the frequency and intimacy in the contact of people, or who abide by the law, or practice deviant behaviors, which determines the direct or indirect learning of these behaviors (Sutherland, 1940).

Subsequently, on the one hand Jeffery (1965) and on the other Burgess and Akers (1966), considered that the Sutherland's differential association theory lacked explicit foundations by which the deviant behavior was learned, therefore, it should be reformulated in the principles of learning, and in this way the transition to social learning theory began (Sellers & Winfree, Jr., 2010), which has four key elements: (a) differential association, (b) differential reinforcement, (c) definitions, and (d) imitation (Akers, 2010; Pratt et al., 2010). The above, largely based on Bandura's work on social learning (Bandura, 1977; Bandura & Walters, 1963).

Meanwhile, the rewards and punishments that an employee receives from the organization about their UBs will influence the behavior of other members to commit or not to engage in this type of behavior (Ashkanasy, Windsor, & Treviño, 2006). In this regard, employees may perceive that theft in small quantities is tolerated, not wrong, even promoted by the same organizational culture, since most employees do so and are socially accepted (Sauser Jr., 2007).

In this trend, Gino, Ayal, and Ariely (2009) referred to the hypothesis of salience as the increase in dishonest behaviors if they saw someone acting under this scheme or, on the contrary, engage in honest acts if they were reminded of ethical standards (Mazar, Amir, & Ariely, 2008). To the above, Appelbaum, Deguire, and Lay (2005) called it deviant role models.

Theory of Reasoned Action and Theory of Planned Behavior. Ajzen's planned behavior theory (1985) expands the assumptions of reasoned action theory (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The theory of reasoned action proposes that a person will engage in a behavior the stronger their intention is, based on their beliefs, attitudes towards consequences (probability of success or failure) and subjective norms. This perspective focuses on behaviors under volitional control, but neglects that the behavior may not be under the control of the will or with limited control. In fact, derived from this deficiency, the theory of planned behavior arises, which in turn takes into account both the perceived and real control over the behavior to be performed, since "personal deficiencies and external obstacles can interfere with the performance of any behavior" (Ajzen, 1985, p. 29).

In the line of attitudes, some researchers have been interested in correlates with DBs (Campos-Ortiz, 2011; Holtbrügge, Baron, & Friedmann, 2015; Law & Zhou, 2014; Wilks, 2011). In that optics Marquardt and Hoeger (2009) highlight the need to differentiate two types of attitudes and their cognitive characteristics, especially in relation to moral attitudes: (a) explicit attitudes, and (b) implicit attitudes. On the first, authors such as Tang and Chiu (2003) have worked on the concept "love of money."

In another line, authors like Henle, Giacalone, and Jurkiewicz (2005) have investigated regarding the ethical ideology of individuals. Here the correlations between idealism and relativism are considered. Depending on their interaction, the organizational deviation will be predicted.

Moral Disengagement. From the perspective of cognitive social theory, according to Bandura (1999), moral reasoning contains the following mechanisms of self-reference: self-organizing, proactive, self-reflective and self-regulatory. These processes self-regulate moral behavior both motivational and cognitively. In this sense, self-sanctions mark the presence of moral duties, keeping the behavior synchronized with personal standards.

On the other hand, moral reasoning is inhibitory for behaviors against morality and proactive in favoring them. However, self-regulatory mechanisms must be activated as they remain neutral; in fact, social and psychological strategies can disengage the mechanism of self-sanctions, more than instantaneously, they act gradually. The characteristics of this disengagement include: (a) the conduct may not be perceived as immoral, (b) minimization in its role of causing harm, (c) consequences of the actions (d) blaming the victims for what happens to them (Bandura 1999).

In general, Bandura (1999) argues that people avoid engaging in harmful behaviors, only until they justify the morality of their acts. Two situations illustrate the above: displacement of responsibility and diffusion of responsibility. In the first case, for example, an authority would assume the consequences of the behavior, the person is not considered an agent of their actions, but is separated from self-condemning reactions. In the second case, when all people are involved in a situation, nobody considers themselves responsible, they act more immorally under group responsibility than under individual (Darley & Latané, 1968). Blaming others or circumstances serves as a mechanism for self-exoneration purposes. These justifications can be increased with euphemistic labels that minimize the intention of the words.

On the other hand, researchers such as Detert, Treviño, and Sweitzer (2008) have found evidence that empathy and moral identity are negatively related to moral disengagement, while cynicism and the locus of external control are positively. In turn, Moore, Detert, Treviño, Baker, and Mayer (2012) found a positive relationship of moral disengagement with the personal characteristics of Machiavellianism and relativism; likewise, negative relationship with moral identity, empathy, cognitive moral development, idealism and dispositional guilt.

However, researchers such as Reynolds, Dang, Yam, and Leavitt (2014) debate the difficulty in measuring moral disengagement. This due to the lack of clarity on how such mechanisms would act in conditions with low moral intensity.

Ethical Blindness. People can act unethically without realizing it (Chugh, & Bazerman, 2007), to the point of believing that it is the right thing, only after acting the mistake is identified. In this regard, Palazzo et al. (2012) define it as “the temporary inability to see the ethical dimension of a decision at stake” (p. 324). This model is based on constructivism, with the interaction of psychological and sociological forces at three levels of analysis: individual, the situation, and the ideological context.

This approach challenges the rational character of the human being (Simon, 1955) at the time of making an ethical decision, where the options of good and bad are classically considered evaluating the potential consequences of behavior, that is to say its unlimited rationality (Von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944). The first assumption is that the person deviates from their own values and principles, that is, they can behave in pathological ways outside their nature (Bandura, 2002; Zimbardo, 2007). In the second, it acts in a limited context and thus a temporary state, when the situation changes, it returns to the original values and principles (Gioia, 1992). The third assumption argues that the situation is unconscious, what Tenbrunsel and Smith-Crowe (2008) call *unintended unethicity* when the decision is believed to be moral, even if it is not.

These three assumptions involve a process, in the beginning individuals feel tensions of their behavior, but as time goes they decrease and ethical concern fades away until the ethical dimension is lost (Tenbrunsel & Messick, 2004). This is an effect related to the slippery slope metaphor where, by rationalizing the execution of a small thing (appropriate or inappropriate), it will be more likely to do another of equal or greater magnitude, and so on (Rizzo & Whitman, 2003). The above is intensified by the fear that leaders can generate, or towards their ideals, or simply by organizational routines.

In the situational context, the following stand out: peer pressures (Asch, 1955), authority (Milgram, 1963), role (Zimbardo, 2007), time (Darley & Batson, 1973), and finally leaders for pursuing success in organizations using administrative tactics following the "Friedman doctrine" (Neuman, 2012) on the social responsibility of businesses to increase their profits (Friedman, 1970). In this regard, as pointed out by Edwin Sutherland, the norms press to one side, other forces to the other, in business the “rules of the game” can compromise the legal norms. The employee who wants to comply with the law can be driven by his competitors to adopt his methods (Sutherland, 1940).

Palazzo et al. (2012) finally invite to rethink the concept of moral responsibility since all those who contribute to the context where ethical decisions are tested are morally responsible for the consequences.

The theoretical framework presented highlights the efforts of the mentioned researchers regarding the constructs associated with employee theft, the study of both individual and situational variables described, and their interaction to try to respond to the causal inference of the problematic. Next, the methodology to execute the proposed systematic review will be developed.

Objectives

Primary objective

Analyze empirical evidence of individual-situational explanatory perspectives on the reasons why employees commit theft.

Secondary objectives

Describe the explanatory perspectives associated with employee theft.

Consolidate the evidence of the explanatory perspectives of employee theft.

Examine the predictive power of individual-situational variables associated with employee theft.

Method

Type of Research and Design

Systematic Review.

A systematic review integrates a structured process (Cook, Mulrow, & Haynes, 1997) for which, in general, there are established stages (Liberati et al., 2009; Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009; Petticrew & Roberts, 2008) adopted and described as a reference for the preparation of this review.

This methodology has had an influence on the one hand, from the Cochrane Collaboration (<http://www.cochrane.org>) and the Centre for Reviews and Dissemination (CRD) of the University from York (<https://www.york.ac.uk/crd/>) about the effects on health care interventions (Centre for Reviews and Dissemination-CRD, 2008; Higgins & Green, 2011). On

the other hand, with the Campbell Collaboration (<https://www.campbellcollaboration.org>) about the effectiveness of programs, policies and practices in the areas of crime and justice, education, international development and social welfare, or in related fields (The Campbell Collaboration, 2017). For the present systematic review, the referents of the methodologies proposed by the Cochrane Collaboration and Campbell Collaboration were adopted.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Types of Studies. To identify the studies that address the evidence of the explanatory perspectives associated with employee theft, documents were searched using a broad set of search terms. Studies were extracted from various sources that related the theft of people in their role as employees and were empirically evaluated.

Studies that used qualitative and quantitative methods of analysis were included. The search included published and unpublished articles, reports, documents and other available sources.

Types of Study Participants. Any sample of workers from both public and private organizations worldwide.

Type of Explanatory Perspectives. Given the different explanatory approaches that address employee theft, the variety of proposals contemplates perspectives that ultimately are based on individual-situational psychological dimensions of human behavior. Multidisciplinary reflections with this substrate were taken into account in this work.

Constructs Comprising the Criterion Variable. The point of view of the causes of theft committed by people in their role as employees determines the study of the phenomenon. With the aim of a comprehensive approach, theft was taken into account, both as an involuntary or unavoidable consequence of pressures (perspective of the UB), as well as by intentional and voluntary actions (perspective of the CWBs).

On the other hand, the employee theft included: (a) any type of property of the organization (discarding time theft to it), (b) towards people with whom it interacts in the organizational context (other employees, contractors, customers, users); and (c) towards the financial administration of the country or countries where it operates.

Search Strategies for Identification of Studies

Keyword Search on Online Abstract Databases and Internet Databases. The first step in finding studies to be included was an exhaustive search of multiple databases and other sources. Within each source, 31 search strings were used. Published articles were found by applying each search string to the following databases: ScienceDirect, ProQuest, EBSCOhost.

In addition to the search for published documents, a search for unpublished and additional documents published on the following sites was conducted: Google Scholar, Open Access Theses and Dissertations (OATD), Open Grey, Transparency International (TI), The Campbell Collaboration Online Library (TCCOL), Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR).

Search Strings (Keywords) Used to Collect the Studies. Thirty-one search strings were generated in both English and Spanish which were the product of those used for the theoretical framework carried out so far (see table 1 “Search Strings”).

Additional Search in Journals. In addition to the previous search, the table of contents for all the years of the three journals that included most of the published studies considered eligible were reviewed.

The same search was carried out for the journal with the greatest presence in potentially eligible documents (see table 2 “Additional Search in Journals”).

Requested Studies from Experts. On November 23, 2018, was emailed to 27 researchers in the domain of employee theft, CWBs and UBs (including the authors of the articles coded so far) who were asked if they knew about material that met the inclusion criteria. Only five researchers replied, one of whom was as author in one of the articles considered eligible. No additional document was provided to the search (see figure 1 “Diagram Search and Coding of Studies” and appendix C “Model E-mail Sent to Researchers”).

Data Collection and Analysis

Selection of Studies. For the present review, titles and summaries resulting from the initial search in the databases were read and irrelevant studies were eliminated. The full text of the articles of potentially relevant studies was retrieved. Each retrieved study was evaluated using the selection criteria described above. Studies that met the inclusion criteria were included.

Table 1

Search Strings

#	English	Spanish
1	corruption	corrupción
2	corruption and theft	corrupción y robo
3	counterproductive work behavior	comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo
4	counterproductive work behavior and theft	comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo y robo
5	deviant workplace behavior	comportamiento desviado trabajo
6	deviant workplace behavior and theft	comportamiento desviado trabajo y robo
7	dishonesty workplace	deshonestidad trabajo
8	dishonesty workplace and theft	deshonestidad trabajo y robo
9	employee deviance	desviación empleado
10	employee deviance and theft	desviación empleado y robo
11	employee misconduct	mala conducta empleado
12	employee misconduct and theft	mala conducta empleado y robo
13	employee theft	robo empleado
14	employee unethical conduct	conducta no ética empleado
15	employee unethical conduct and theft	conducta no ética empleado y robo
16	unethical behavior organizations	comportamiento no ético organizaciones
17	unethical behavior organizations and theft	comportamiento no ético organizaciones y robo
18	unethical conduct organizations	conducta no ética organizaciones
19	unethical conduct organizations and theft	conducta no ética organizaciones y robo
20	ethical decision making	toma decisiones éticas
21	ethical decision making and theft	toma decisiones éticas y robo
22	illegal behavior workplace	comportamiento ilegal trabajo
23	illegal behavior workplace and theft	comportamiento ilegal trabajo y robo
24	integrity and theft	integridad y robo
25	kickback	soborno
26	kickback and theft	soborno y robo
27	misconduct organizations	mala conducta organizaciones

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

#	English	Spanish
28	misconduct organizations and theft	mala conducta organizaciones y robo
29	organizational misbehavior	mal comportamiento organizacional
30	organizational misbehavior and theft	mal comportamiento organizacional y robo
31	workplace steal/workplace theft	robo trabajo

Note: The combinations of these search strings are listed in appendix A, table 7 “Search String Results”.

Of the potentially eligible studies, a search was made in Google Scholar of the documents both cited and referenced in the same work, as well as other sources that cited it.

For each database and search string, the number of results (hits) obtained from the search was tracked. For each citation, the summary was reviewed to determine (a) if the article related to causal explanations of employee theft, and (b) if there was quantitative evidence of some kind that could be codified for a systematic review. Studies that met both criteria were considered potentially eligible and continued with the next coding phase.

Table 2

Additional Search in Journals

Journal	Years	Volumes
Ethics & Behavior	1991-2018	28
Journal of Financial Crime	1993-2018	25
International Journal of Academic Research	2014-2018	6
Journal of Business Ethics	1982-2018	153

Note: The first three journals included most of the published studies considered eligible. The last one got the greatest presence in potentially eligible documents.

Relevant Articles Coded for Inclusion. After collecting the previously chosen articles, each document was completely analyzed and its inclusion in the final database was decided. The inclusion criteria were:

1. The study specifically addressed employee theft. Because theft has been treated as a behavior included in the two most commonly used currents in the literature, namely: UB and CWB, the causal explanations of these two approaches to employees were taken into account, provided that they are associated or deal with theft. Any other unethical or counterproductive behavior different than theft was dismissed.
2. The study had to report regression or correlation coefficients.
3. The study was written in English or Spanish.
4. The study was published between 2008 and 2018.

During this procedure, the studies were coded as eligible or ineligible, or as a relevant review. A document considered as a “relevant review” means that, although it does not meet the inclusion criteria, it had other studies cited within it that need to be examined for potential inclusion. Likewise, it can be a qualitative study, from which the design and methods of data collection used will be extracted.

Publication Bias. A parallel was made between published and unpublished studies with the following criteria: allocation of participants; if questionnaire was used: statistical validation of the instrument(s), description of the instrument(s), and internal consistency of theft items.

Conclusion of the Search. The search for studies that met the inclusion criteria began on September 1, 2018 and ended on March 22, 2019. All citations that determined to be eligible were coded in a Microsoft Excel™ database with the following headings: author, year, title, type (article, dissertation, thesis, other), type of organization (public, private, mixed), search platform, country, sample size, sample allocation (probabilistic/non-probabilistic), age, positions, theoretical references, dimension (individual/situational/individual-situational), predictive variable, criterion variable, number of total items in the instrument(s), number of items in the instrument to measure the criterion variable, validation strategy(s) of the instrument(s) and statistical value, parametrics used, moderating variables, mediating variables, Pearson’s correlation coefficient, Cohen’s d, and effect size.

Results

Consolidation of Explanatory Evidence of Employee Theft

Search Results. Of the total number of hits retrieved from the total search strings, the title and summary of 22919 records was reviewed (see appendix A, table 7 “Search String Results”). Of these, the full text of 171 documents was evaluated for inclusion in this review. The excluded articles were 165 for the reasons described (see appendix B, table 8 “Excluded Studies”). Were recovered six documents that met the inclusion criteria (see table 3 “General Characteristics of the Studies that met the Inclusion Criteria”). A document was considered as a relevant review which was a longitudinal qualitative-quantitative multi-method study (Baxter, 2014). Neither documents on the recommendation of experts nor the product of the additional search for journals met the inclusion criteria. The process of selecting the studies is summarized in Figure 1.

Included Studies. The total eligible and coded documents were six. Of these, three were conducted in the United States (Bok, 2016; Casten, 2013; Emilus, 2011). Two were from Malaysia (Moorthy et al., 2015; Moorthy, Somasundaram, Arokiasamy, Nadarajah, & Marimuthu, 2011) and the remaining from Nigeria (Yekini, Ohalehi, Oguchi, & Abiola, 2018). All published in English (see table 3 “General Characteristics of the Studies that met the Inclusion Criteria”).

The United States documents corresponded to a master’s thesis (Bok, 2016) and two dissertations (Casten, 2013; Emilus, 2011). The others were published articles, two included in Scimago Journal & Country Rank (SJR) ranking in Q3 (Moorthy et al., 2015; Yekini et al., 2018).

Regarding the type of organization, four were private (Emilus, 2011; Moorthy et al., 2015; Moorthy et al., 2011; Yekini et al., 2018), the remaining did not clarify.

The sample used had a minimum of 117 (Bok, 2016) and a maximum of 450 participants (Moorthy et al., 2015). Only two did not refer to gender or age (Moorthy et al., 2011; Yekini et al., 2018). Alike, three reported non-probabilistic sample selection (Bok, 2016; Casten, 2013; Emilus, 2011) and the remaining probabilistic (Moorthy et al., 2015; Moorthy et al., 2011; Yekini et al., 2018). Only one study did not specify the positions of the participants (Emilus, 2011).

Figure 1. Diagram Search and Coding of Studies

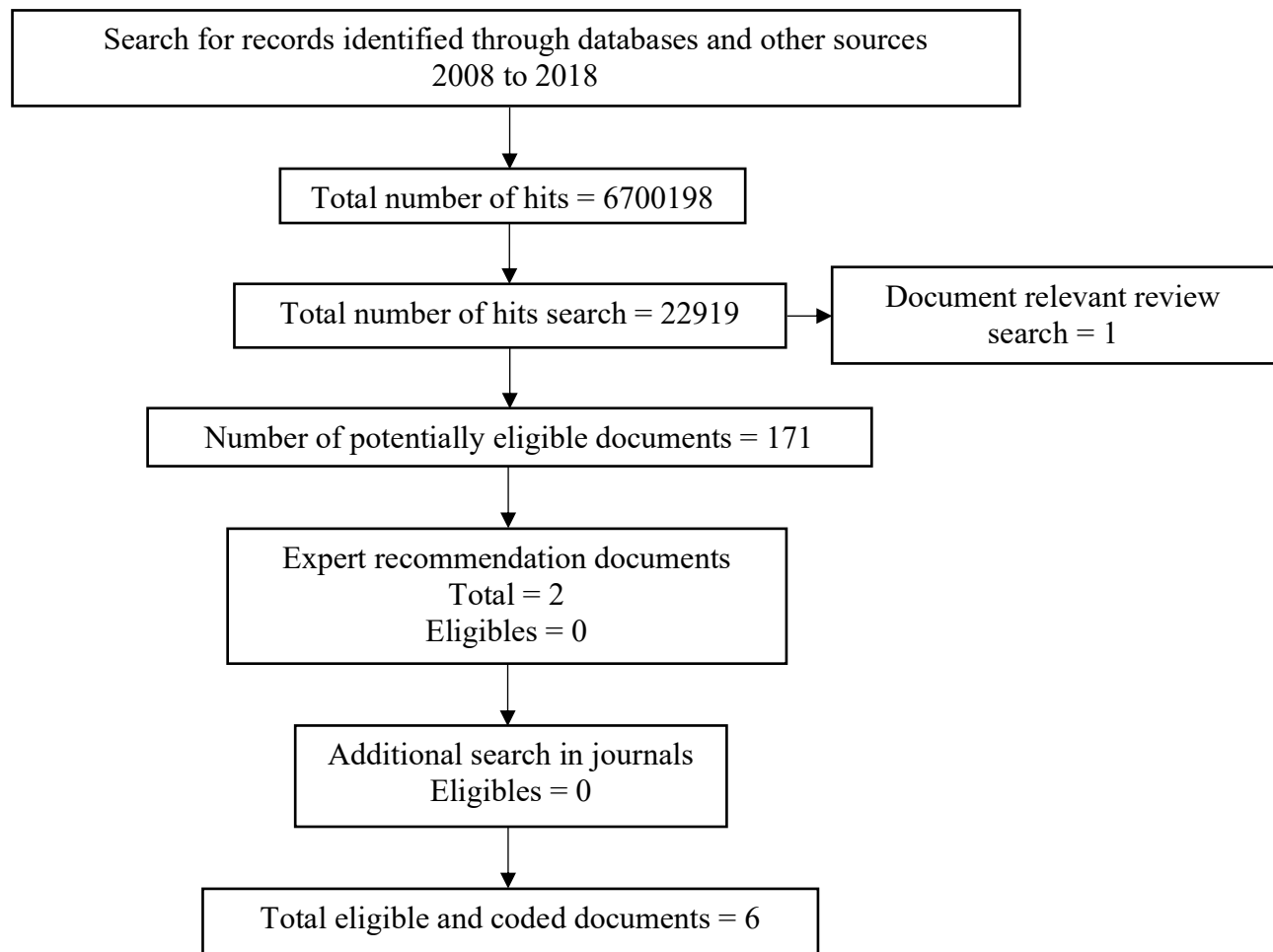


Figure 1. Selection process of studies that met the inclusion criteria. The experts who recommended studies were Paul Spector, University of South Florida, article: Spector et al. (2006), and Richard Hollinger, University of Florida, article: Langton and Hollinger (2005). Both replies on November 23, 2018.

For the quantitative analysis of the data, multiple regression predominated (Bok, 2016; Emilus, 2011; Moorthy et al., 2011; Yekini et al., 2018), one study turned to logistic regression (Casten, 2013) and one to the structural equation model (Moorthy et al., 2015) (see table 4 “Publication Bias”).

One study considered in its model the mediator variable perceived behavioral control (Bok, 2016). On the other hand, Moorthy et al. (2015) included in its model the mediator variable intention to steal, and the moderator variable internal control systems. The remaining articles did not include mediators or moderators in their models.

Excluded Studies. Subsequent to its evaluation in full text, 171 documents were excluded as they did not meet the inclusion criteria. Of these, 20 used the Spector’s scale (Spector’ et al., 2006) which included five theft items, but focused on their analysis in the CWBs. In turn, 37 used the Bennett and Robinson scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000) that related two items of theft, however, they focused on the DB analysis. Similarly, 16 documents used different scales, which included one or more items of employee theft, but pointing in their analysis to constructs different from the objective of this review. On the other hand, 54 did not include employee theft. Additionally, seven focused in perceptions of aspects of employee theft, three to statistics, two to strategies, one to typologies, but none to the predictors. Likewise, two related to unethical academic behavior. On the other hand, five developed qualitative methodology. Meanwhile, in 20 studies the sample did not correspond to employees, one without mentioning the type of participants. Similarly, two did not evaluate the individual dimension and the other the situational one (see appendix B, table 8 “Excluded Studies”).

Assessment of Publication Bias

As a result of the risk assessment of publication, the tendency of unpublished studies against those published to inform the statistical validation of their instruments and to provide a description of the items used is highlighted. In contrast, for the published studies the pattern for the allocation of participants was probabilistic, unlike the unpublished ones in which the non-probabilistic prevailed (see table 4 “Publication Bias”).

Table 3

General Characteristics of the Studies that Met the Inclusion Criteria

Authors	Document type	Type of organization	Search platform	Country	Sample size	Age	Positions
Bok, 2016	Master thesis	Did not report	Google Scholar	United States	117 (28.9% men; 71.1% women)	$\bar{x} = 37.5$; $s = 13.1$	Supervisors from different areas 40.7%
Casten, 2013	Doctoral dissertation	Did not report	ProQuest	United States	352 (41.5% men; 58.5% women)	Between 18 and 55 years 100%. Between 18 and 23 years 85%	Lower level workers
Emilus, 2011	Doctoral dissertation	Private	ProQuest	United States	130 (42.3% men; 57.7% women)	Between 18 and 62 years $\bar{x} = 31.5$; $s = 9.52$	Did not report
Moorthy et al., 2015	Journal article	Private	EBSCOhost	Malaysia	450 (54.9% men; 45.1% women)	$\bar{x} = 33.5$; $s = 4.78$	Sales assistants 40.4%, senior sales assistants 30%, supervisors 14.4%, managers 5.6%, cashiers 9.6%

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Authors	Document type	Type of organization	Search platform	Country	Sample size	Age	Positions
Moorthy et al., 2011	Journal article	Private	Google Scholar	Malaysia	224 (did not report gender)	Did not report	Sales assistants, senior sales assistants, supervisors, cashiers, audit assistants (did not specify percentages).
Yekini et al., 2018	Journal article	Private	Google Scholar	Nigeria	159 (did not report gender)	Did not report	Sales, suppliers, accounts, cashiers (did not specify percentages).

Table 4

Publication Bias

Authors	Assignment of participants	Statistical validation instrument(s)	Description of instrument(s) items	Internal consistency items theft/steal
Bok, 2016	Not probabilistic, snowball	Principal component analysis and confirmatory factor analysis	32 items, 2 of theft	$\alpha = .64$
Casten, 2013	Not probabilistic, unspecified	Factorial analysis	99 items, 6 of theft	$\alpha = .785$
Emilus, 2011	Not probabilistic, for convenience	Exploratory factor analysis	44 items, 3 of theft	$\alpha = .94$
Moorthy et al., 2015	Probabilistic, simple random sampling	Did not report	28 items, 7 of theft	$\alpha = .814$
Moorthy et al., 2011	Probabilistic, systematic random sampling	Did not report	Did not report	Above $\alpha = .70$
Yekini et al., 2018	Probabilistic, stratified sampling	Did not report	28 items, no specifying which of theft	Did not report

Dissemination of Explanatory Approaches to Employee Theft

Both Moorthy et al. (2011) as Yekini et al. (2018) based their research without focusing on any particular theory. Rather, they turned to different individual and situational explanations to theoretically support their work. They coincided with predictive variables such as financial need, compensation, unfair treatment, theft behaviors of other employees and personal characteristics such as gambling habits. However, Yekini et al. (2018) described in their study a greater number of variables, both individual and situational (see table 5 “Dimensions and Variables of the Studies that met the Inclusion Criteria”). Likewise, the latter researchers, in the description of their theoretical framework, added explanatory perspectives of employee theft such as the equity theory, differential association theory, fraud triangle, fraud diamond, physical controls, institutional policies of accounting, hiring and grievances.

On the other hand, Bok (2016) and Emilus (2011) in their studies, supported the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In that sense, Bok (2016) considered that social exchange theories with the focus on retaliation as a result of injustice (distributive) are insufficient to explain the theft, in this particular case about employee food. Likewise, he argued that the theory of planned behavior provides a more adequate explanation of the small thefts because of its motivational nature.

Meanwhile, Emilus (2011) proposed within his theoretical framework other approaches described in turn by Moorthy et al. (2011) and Yekini et al. (2018) such as the financial aspect, gambling habits, and inequity. Although not formally mentioned, Emilus adds the components of the fraud triangle such as opportunity, justification (rationalization) and economic pressure. Include individual perspectives such as lack of impulse control, antisocial personality disorder, bipolar disorder, substance abuse, level of cognitive moral development. Similarly, he adds work climate, corporate policies, lack of commitment to the organization, even the social economy. Finally, he considers the closeness in the organization with people who theft, although he does not refer to it as the differential association theory.

The theoretical foundation of Moorthy et al. (2015) also included the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen, 1991), but they added in their model the equity theory (Adams, 1965) and Skinner's reinforcement theory (Skinner, 1974). The latter, to support the sanctions of the administration and the fear of reprisals commented by Hollinger and Clark (1983b).

In his study Casten (2013) focused his research on the general strain theory, specifically on the effects of gender discrimination. The researcher described gender stratification, particularly in women discriminated against at work with respect to men. He pointed out that pay gaps, and the effects of glass ceiling, glass escalator, and sticky floors are some ways in which women are stratified. Derived from these phenomena, the mentioned forms of discrimination can be an inciting factor for theft since discrimination can be unfair, high in magnitude, and associated with low social control. He complements asserting that economic pressures play an important role in this interaction.

Predictors Associated with Employee Theft

For each study, the variables were classified into predictors and criteria, as well as their individual/situational dimension (see table 5 “Dimensions and Variables of the Studies that Met the Inclusion Criteria”).

Examination of the Predictive Power of Individual-Situational Variables Associated with Employee Theft

Effect Size of Individual-Situational Predictors. The effect size of comparable predictor variables was calculated in studies that met the inclusion criteria. These calculations were obtained following the indications of the conversion scores of Lenhard and Lenhard (2016) and its interpretation according Cohen (1988). For the above, the Pearson correlations of these variables was extracted in the studies of Casten (2013), Emilus (2011) and Yekini et al. (2018) (see table 6 “Effect Size of Comparable Predictor Variables in Studies that Met the Inclusion Criteria”).

Consequently, the appropriate predictive variables for comparing effect sizes mentioned by Casten (2013) corresponded to marital status, impulsivity, age, peer association, anger, depression, predisposition, and commitment, focused on the variable criterion intention to steal. To this, it's added the predictive variable organizational commitment of Emilus (2011). On the other hand, Yekini et al. (2018) add the predictive variable age (21 years or less and 22 to 30 years) but pointing to the variable criteria employee theft.

Table 5

Dimensions and Variables of the Studies that Met the Inclusion Criteria

Authors	Dimension	Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable
Bok, 2016	Individual	Attitude towards food theft	Lunch theft
	Individual-Situational	Perceived behavioral control	Lunch theft
	Situational	Subjective norms	Lunch theft
	Situational	Moral obligation	Lunch theft
	Situational	Group cohesion	Lunch theft
Casten, 2013	Individual	Men-Age	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Women-Age	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Men-Marital Status	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Women-Marital Status	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Men-Impulsivity	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Women-Impulsivity	Intentions to steal
	Individual-Situational	Men-Peer association	Intentions to steal
	Individual-Situational	Women-Peer association	Intentions to steal
	Individual-Situational	Men-Commitment	Intentions to steal
	Individual-Situational	Women-Commitment	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Men-Anger	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Women-Anger	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Men-Depression	Intentions to steal

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

Authors	Dimension	Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable
Casten, 2013	Individual	Women-Depression	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Men-Predisposition	Intentions to steal
	Individual	Women-Predisposition	Intentions to steal
Emilus, 2011	Individual	Attitude towards employee theft	Intention to commit employee theft
	Situational	Subjective norms	Intention to commit employee theft
	Individual-Situational	Perceived behavioral control	Intention to commit employee theft
	Individual-Situational	Organizational commitment	Intention to commit employee theft
	Individual	Moral norm	Intention to commit employee theft
Moorthy et al., 2015	Individual	Need	Intention to steal
	Individual	Opportunity	Intention to steal
	Individual	Personal characteristics	Intention to steal
	Situational	Compensation	Intention to steal
	Situational	Justice	Intention to steal
	Situational	Ethical work climate	Intention to steal
	Situational	Coworker theft and punishment	Intention to steal
Moorthy et al., 2011	Individual	Need	Workplace theft behaviour
	Individual	Opportunity	Workplace theft behaviour
	Individual	Personal characteristics	Workplace theft behaviour
	Situational	Compensation	Workplace theft behaviour

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

Authors	Dimension	Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable
Moorthy et al., 2011	Situational	Justice	Workplace theft behaviour
	Situational	Ethical work climate	Workplace theft behaviour
	Situational	Coworker theft behaviour	Workplace theft behaviour
Yekini et al., 2018	Individual	Age-22 to 30 years	Employee theft
	Individual	Age-21 years or less	Employee theft
	Individual	Strong financial need	Employee theft
	Individual	Unhappiness with job	Employee theft
	Individual	Close association with unscrupulous colleagues	Employee theft
	Individual	Excessive pressure from family members	Employee theft
	Individual	Excessive gambling habits	Employee theft
	Individual	Not recognising employee theft as an unethical act	Employee theft
	Individual	Living beyond one's means	Employee theft
	Situational	Underpayment for lots of work done	Employee theft
	Situational	No separation of duties	Employee theft
	Situational	Unfair treatment received from workplace	Employee theft
	Situational	No frequent review of store items	Employee theft
	Situational	Unrecognised job performance	Employee theft

(continued)

Table 5 (continued)

Authors	Dimension	Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable
Yekini et al., 2018	Situational	Inadequate control of cash and store items	Employee theft
	Situational	Placing too much trust on key staff	Employee theft

In that sense, the predictive variables of Casten (2013), marital status-women, age-women, anger-men/women and depression-women had no effect. The predictive variables of the same author, marital status-men, impulsivity-men, age-men, peer association-men, and commitment men/women, acquired a small effect, the latter, ratified with the effect size of the same commitment variable tackle by Emilus (2011), although without differentiating between men and women. Returning with Casten (2013), the predictive variables impulsivity-women, peer association-women, depression-men, and predisposition-men, obtained intermediate effect size. The predictive variables with the greatest effect (large effect), were those indicated by Yekini et al. (2018), referred to as age-22 to 30 years, and age-21 years or less.

Validation of the Instruments Used and Items Related to Theft to Measure the Criterion Variable

In the case of Bok (2016) conducted principal component analysis and confirmatory factor analysis on the scale of his study consisting of 32 items, particularly using two items of theft ($\alpha = .64$). Casten (2013) on the other hand, conducted factor analysis, related six items of steal ($\alpha = .785$) of 99. Emilus (2011) reported validation of the 44 items used through exploratory factor analysis used in previous studies, related three items on theft ($\alpha = .94$). Moorthy et al. (2015) did not report the method of statistical validation of the 28 items used, related seven items about intentions to steal ($\alpha = .814$). Moorthy et al. (2011) carried out the validation of the items by panel of experts without mentioning their statistical correspondence, did not relate number of theft items or the number of total items, and assured that all had an acceptable minimum above $\alpha = .70$. Finally, Yekini et al. (2018) reported a scale of 36 items, without specifying the number about theft, neither the method of validation of the items or the coefficient of internal consistency.

Table 6

Effect Size of Comparable Predictor Variables in Studies that Met the Inclusion Criteria

Authors	Dimension	Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable	r	d	Effect size
Casten, 2013	Individual	Men-Marital Status	Intentions to steal	-.14	-.282	Small
	Individual	Women-Marital Status	Intentions to steal	No correlation		No Effect
	Individual	Men-Impulsivity	Intentions to steal	.24	.494	Small
	Individual	Women-Impulsivity	Intentions to steal	.33	.699	Intermediate
	Individual	Men-Age	Intentions to steal	-.14	-.282	Small
	Individual	Women-Age	Intentions to steal	No correlation		No Effect
Yekini et al., 2018	Individual	Age-22 to 30 years	Employee theft	.68	1.854	Large
	Individual	Age-21 years or less	Employee theft	.394	.857	Large
Casten, 2013	Individual-Situational	Men-Peer association	Intentions to steal	-.23	-.472	Small
	Individual-Situational	Women-Peer association	Intentions to steal	.32	.675	Intermediate
	Individual	Men-Anger	Intentions to steal	No correlation		No Effect
	Individual	Women-Anger	Intentions to steal	No correlation		No Effect
	Individual	Men-Depression	Intentions to steal	.27	.56	Intermediate
	Individual	Women-Depression	Intentions to steal	No correlation		No Effect
	Individual	Men-Predisposition	Intentions to steal	.33	.699	Intermediate
	Individual	Women-Predisposition	Intentions to steal	Did not report		Not apply

(continued)

Table 6 (continued)

Authors	Dimension	Predictor Variable	Criterion Variable	r	d	Effect size
Casten, 2013	Individual-Situational	Men-Commitment	Intentions to steal	-.17	-.345	Small
	Individual-Situational	Women-Commitment	Intentions to steal	-.19	-.387	Small
Emilus, 2011	Individual-Situational	Organizational commitment	Intention to commit employee theft	-.76	-2.338	Small

Discussion

From the systematic review contained in this document, it can be affirmed that the empirical evidence of the individual-situational explanatory perspectives on the reasons why employees commit theft is reduced. One of the possible causes of this fact suggests that most of the attention of researchers has focused on the investigation of the dominant constructs CWB, DB and UB. These, in turn, contain a variety of behaviors that overlap the understanding of the pure nature of the explanation of employee theft. In itself, most of the excluded studies were discarded for this reason (see appendix B, table 8 “Excluded Studies”).

Regarding the theoretical scheme of employee theft, the tradition of the rationalist paradigm continues to focus on greater importance. In that sense, the CWB and DB approaches predominate, with a marked weight towards the situational aspect. Theories among which the fraud triangle, differential association, planned action, equity, reinforcement, and general strain stand out. Likewise, aspects such as financial need, institutional accounting policies, hiring and grievances. Although in this context, the characteristics of the employee that make him/her vulnerable to commit theft such as gambling habits, impulse control, antisocial personality disorder, bipolar disorder, substance abuse, level of cognitive moral development are not neglected.

However, the UB’s approach in understanding that the origin of employee theft can be committed as an involuntary or unavoidable consequence of pressures, in general fulfilling the assigned functions, but yielding to situations of conflict of values, it is not addressed on selected studies. The individual variables related by the studies are not contemplated in this context, that is, although there are pressures of the same role assigned to employment to commit some type of theft, there is no differential parallel between which employees succumb to these situations and which do not. As Lefkowitz (2009) refers, relationships should not be decontextualized by individual variables that are likely to produce incorrect and a simplified description of misconduct. This last case could be the subject of a future line of research.

As a result of the current systematic review, it is concluded that the results are biased towards the explanation of approaches such as CWB and DB. Although they are plausible and necessary explanations of employee theft, unfortunately, absent are documents with the UB perspective and related optics such as approaches to intuitive judgment and dual information processing. Empirical research with the inclusion criteria established here is indebted with this

type of approach, otherwise, the generalizability and external validity of the findings will inevitably be compromised.

If one starts from the position of the CWB or DB, on the one hand, or on the other of the UB, it necessarily produces different results in the way that the origin of the phenomenon is attempted to be resolved. Politically for organizations it is easier to assign the responsibility of theft to the characteristics of their employees than to their organizational policies, that is, it is better to highlight the aggressive, selfish and greedy features of the human being, than a faulty organizational scheme or leadership wrong of its managers. From this vision, it could fit the possibility that organizations are much more aggressive, selfish and greedy than the same employee. It must be remembered that in essence the organizations are directed by people and their organizational policies are the product of ideas of human beings, for a final purpose mainly economic utilities, including, but not limited to, the political interests of those who integrate it (in any position), and possible particular benefits in terms of operating resources (mostly payrolls and supplies).

The foregoing triggers a problem for field research, in other words, to what extent organizations agree to grant access to academic research where the conclusion of their direct or indirect responsibility for theft by their employees can be revealed beyond lack of controls or policy setting. Although, the positions of the employees included in the selected studies in general were medium and low, therefore, it is not clear if it would allow to appreciate a responsibility of the top managers. In this regard, the importance of academic research with qualitative components that take up cases of corruption occurred, such as studies carried out by Blanc, Cho, Sopt, and Branco (2019), Kulik, O'Fallon, and Salimath (2008) and Sims (2010), among others, in the absence of viable empirical research.

Again, the underlying problem in the research of employee theft is mentioned since most of these issues at high organizational levels are dealt with in silent complicity, can betray organizations and even be penalized by laws. In that sense, exploration in this field may inevitably be relegated to the circumstances already exposed causing barriers to research. A possible future work derived from this last issue, could be the exploration of the validity of content in the field of employee theft what respond to the extent that such validity is affected by the mentioned.

As evidenced in the results, the strategy of self-reports as information gathering was the generalized tool for empirical research. In this way, and as mentioned by Thau, Pitesa, and Pillutla (2014), the underutilization of experiments in organizational behavior is unjustified and unfortunate, despite its high sensitivity to experimental studies. In this sense, empirical tests using non-experimental methods prevail in the studies. Similarly, the methodology of passive observation in the investigation of organizational behavior and its limitations in empirical studies to extract causal inferences is criticized (Scandura & Williams, 2000). In contrast, Burns, Kinkade, and Bachmann (2012) in their study included different methodologies to self-reports and passive observations, in this case directly evaluating the theft behavior by employees, unfortunately they did not include individual variables to consider their findings in the present review.

As a result of the search process included here, Highhouse (2009) agrees about his concern about samples in organizational behavior research experiments, often based on non-representative employee samples. In addition to this, a great variety of experiments have used samples with people who do not have or have limited work experience, generalizing these findings towards theories about work behavior could be misleading, even more when these people do not have a real exposure to the work environment (Thau et al., 2014). The importance of the chosen inclusion criterion tending towards this point is highlighted, an aspect that ruled out a large part of the studies, mainly related to cheating and dishonesty.

Although employee theft was one of the criteria for inclusion in the studies, not all treated the criterion variable in the same way. That is, while Yekini et al. (2018) evaluated employee attitudes towards theft, Casten (2013), Emilus (2011), Moorthy et al. (2015) evaluated employee intentions towards theft/steal. In turn, Bok (2016) and Moorthy et al. (2011) relied on their investigations into the willingness of employees to admit theft behaviors. In addition to what was discussed about the widespread use of self-reports as a research strategy, little evidence is added to the theft behaviors actually done by employees. In this way, despite the confidentiality that can be given to employees in recognizing theft behaviors, distrust of the participants can persist. Perhaps this is a determining factor for its reduced reception. Studies denoting theft behavior as such could provide convergent validity so absent in the field.

The published studies referred to probabilistic methods for the assignment of the sample, which, from another point of view, make them more robust than the non-probabilistic methods

used by the master's thesis and doctoral dissertations. In this regard, the additional obligation to explain the assumptions of the covariates included in the non-randomized designs must be taken into account and to warn interested parties about conflicting hypotheses to explain their results (Wilkinson & APA Task Force on Statistical Inference, 1999).

Likewise, the published documents contemplated a combination of theories in their frame of reference, unlike the unpublished ones which focused on one, be it the theory of planned action or the strain theory. The criterion that differed the most in the studies was to report the characteristics to replicate the study in a reliable way. As potential sources of bias, it is suggested to overcome these limitations and weaknesses for future studies.

It should be noted that the academic M. Krishna Moorthy was the principal researcher of two different studies that met the inclusion criteria (Moorthy et al., 2015; Moorthy et al., 2011). These were developed in different years, and in each one she worked with other authors, but using the same predictive variables (need, opportunity, personal characteristics, compensation, justice, ethical work climate, coworker theft), although with different criteria variables (admission to workplace theft, intention to steal). Given the characteristics of the 2015 study, mainly regarding the criterion variable and the statistical method used (structural equation model) it is possible that the academic has matured and improved her research proposal. In this sense, this parallel is conceived of special importance.

As mentioned in the results, the statistical method preferred by the researchers was in general multiple regression (Bok, 2016; Emilus, 2011; Moorthy et al., 2011; Yekini et al., 2018). Only one study turned to logistic regression (Casten, 2013) and one to the structural equation model (Moorthy et al., 2015). Observing the interaction of the individual-situational variables, contemplating the mediating and moderating variables, and considering the complexity of the matter, the approach of Moorthy et al. (2015) may be the most successful to date to study this particular phenomenon. Future research should define clear horizons in this regard about which statistical method should be preferred for its study, evaluating the contribution of qualitative-quantitative mixed methodologies. In that sense, researchers such as Thau et al. (2014) advocate mixed methods approaches that include both experimentation and passive observation based on specific individual or contextual factors.

There was no comprehensive theoretical model to test their hypotheses. Unlike unpublished studies, those published (Moorthy et al., 2015; Moorthy et al., 2011; Yekini et al.,

2018) opted for a set of both individual and situational predictors to theoretically support their work (financial need, compensation, unfair treatment, coworker theft, personal characteristics such as gambling habits, among others). Therefore, the combination of other individual approaches (personality traits such as the model of the Big Five, Hexaco dimension, Dark Triad, locus of control, negative affectivity and psychobiological models), as well as situational (psychological contract, attribution theory, moral intensity model), and mainly those that correspond to UBs such as moral disengagement and ethical blindness.

Regarding the role of the variables of employee theft, the studies selected mostly did not include in their models, mediating or moderating variables. On the one hand, Bok (2016) referred in his model the mediator variable perceived behavioral control. On the other, Moorthy et al. (2015) included in their model the mediator variable intention to steal, and the moderator variable internal control systems. Given this reality, it is worrisome for the field not to take into account in most of its studies these mediating-moderating dynamics, without considering their potential (Lefkowitz, 2009). It is known that the relationships among variables of behavioral and social sciences are complex (Hopkins, Hopkins, & Glass, 1996), the interaction in which a person finds himself as an employee and that with this role theft/steals, implicitly brings individual-situational interrelations that explain why he/she does it. In this puzzle, insurance mediating and moderating variables occupy a key role to refer to plausible explanatory models. This finding may be a potential source of bias and threats to internal validity. In this sense, it is not free that the article by Baron and Kenny (1986) has been one of the most cited in academic literature. Subsequent empirical research should take these dynamics into account.

Regarding the publication of the results in academic studies, the presentation of the effect size has been recommended (American Psychological Association, 2010; Wilkinson & APA Task Force on Statistical Inference, 1999). However, none of the selected studies related this measure. Omitting effect sizes could increase non-sampling error (Peterson & Brown, 2005).

The predictive variables and criteria of the selected studies were mostly dissimilar from each other to examine the predictive power among studies of individual-situational predictors associated with employee theft (see table 6 “Effect Size of Comparable Predictor Variables in Studies that Met the Inclusion Criteria”). As Simpson et al. (2014) argue “it is inappropriate to create an average effect size when the unit of analysis differs among studies, when constructs differ” (p. 22).

In this regard, Grissom and Kim (2005) commented that the effect sizes calculated directly by the primary researchers will be more accurate than those based on effect sizes estimated retrospectively using approximate conversion formulas, as was done in this systematic review. Meta-analysis and systematic reviews generally do not have access to this primary data. The subsequent strategy is to contact the authors to request such information. It is reiterated that due to the disparity among the studies mentioned, it was not necessary to require the aforementioned data of the remaining predictive variables.

Although the criteria variables of the studies by Casten (2013) and Yekini et al. (2018), are different (intention to steal, and employee theft, respectively), the predictive age variables reported by the latter researchers attract attention, for two reasons. The first, because in the Casten (2013) study, the age-men variable had a small effect, unlike Yekini et al. (2018), although they did not specify gender in their sample size, making the parallel between men and women impossible. The second, in Casten (2013) research the predictive variable impulsivity-men had a small effect which, according to the literature especially the containment theory, young people especially must be contains to commit deviant acts (Flexon, 2010), what otherwise Yekini et al. (2018) reaffirm.

It is encouraging to find that in each study, predictive variables were evidenced with no effect (see table 5 “Dimensions and Variables of the Studies that met the Inclusion Criteria”) which can reduce the possible notification bias as a worrying factor of the studies taken into account in the systematic reviews and meta-analysis (Higgins & Green, 2011; The Campbell Collaboration, 2017).

Another point of discussion has to do with what the authors of the selected studies consider as individual variables. In this case, Moorthy et al. (2015) and Moorthy et al. (2011) classified the predictor variable “opportunity” as an individual variable and Yekini et al. (2018) in turn, cataloged in this domain the variables “strong financial needs, unhappiness with job, close association with unscrupulous colleagues, excessive pressure from family members and living beyond one’s means.” When reflecting on these variables, all have a high influence on the situational aspect, in fact, their origin is situational. It would be necessary to reformulate, or rather, it is invited to clearly support in the studies the purely individual character of a variable when considered in that spectrum, or perhaps in both, individual-situational.

The samples of the studies ranged from 117 to 450 participants, in general considerable quantity for empirical studies. Not so, there was a lack of diversity in the type of employee organization (public, private, mixed). This is unfortunate since the orientation of the organization regarding its culture, climate, and other characteristics, could shed light on differential organizational dynamics on the phenomenon of employee theft depending on this condition. This aspect is invited to be taken into account in subsequent academic approaches.

The country that prevailed in the selected studies was the United States (Bok, 2016; Casten, 2013; Emilus, 2011), followed by Malaysia (Moorthy et al., 2015; Moorthy et al., 2011) and Nigeria (Yekini et al., 2018). Regions like Europe, Oceania and Latin America were absent. On the latter, it is considered especially imperative to conduct empirical research considering the inclusion criteria and recommendations of the present study, especially when technical reports such as the corruption perceptions index 2018 estimated worrying figures regarding the countries that make up the latter region (Transparency International, 2018).

Derived from the comments in the two preceding paragraphs, the role of international organizations and national governments regarding employee theft should be more important, especially when there was no study with participants from public organizations. Without clear contributions about the empirical evidence on predictive variables underlying the explanation of the phenomenon, strategies for minimization may not go the expected way. Research in this matter should be promoted, since as described in the introductory part, it is a social problem with a high financial impact that prevents progress towards fairer societies.

A doctoral dissertation was considered as a relevant review (Baxter, 2014). The document in question used the longitudinal multi-method qualitative-quantitative methodology. The author investigated the motivations of employee theft in retail stores in the United States, Canada and Puerto Rico from the content analysis of 138 written statements. For her analysis she established two sub groups (organizational and personal), seven categories (financial, family, medical, personal, opportunity, organizational and remorse) and ten sub categories (in financial: divorce/custody/personal, abuse, school, family, home, debt/bills; in family: medical, financial; in medical: personal, financial). From 37% of its sample contained more than one type of motivation of those mentioned. Among the conclusions that interest to the present review, the researcher found evidence of a greater probability of catching men than women in thefts, the age of highest frequency of thefts was between 20 and 25 years, greater frequency theft in employees

with seven months old, among a longer period of time worked less theft frequency. The financial subcategory was the one with the highest number of cases. Although the intention of the investigation was not to prove criminological theories, she clarified that some motivations coincided with the routine activities theory and techniques of neutralization. This document also does not escape the comments made in this discussion about the selected studies, in other words, it especially coincides with regard to the predictive age variable indicated by Yekini et al. (2018). Conversely, none of the selected studies contemplated the variable used by Baxter (2014) alluding to tenure of employment.

The importance of the findings of this systematic review has scope from legal, organizational and clinical psychology. His relationship with other sciences such as economics, administration, sociology, and criminology, among others, is undeniable. It is only enough to review the theoretical support presented here and the articulation of the conceptual framework with the related studies, including the selected studies, to refer that all these areas of knowledge play and have played a transcendental role in the evolution of the field about employee theft. Uniting the efforts of the different disciplines, provides key points for the development of the area of interest.

As a final product, and from the exploration of the exposed literature, this systematic review is unique worldwide. The search for articles that met the inclusion criteria was robust. In the same way, the number of related references here is wide and of quality. This systematic review was proposed providing as many details as possible for its replication. Likewise, this document can be taken as a reference for the elaboration of similar revisions. Overcoming the deficiencies noted in this discussion, future empirical studies may be firm candidates for inclusion in subsequent systematic reviews. This document is an added value for those interested in Spanish speaking, since as evidenced most of it refers to the English language. In that sense, it is also unique in its category.

Three main reviews are recognized as limitations of this systematic review: the complete review of the number of hits, greater spectrum in the databases used and search in other languages. With more logistic resources, future systematic reviews could overcome these scopes.

Finally, the expectation arises that, with the contributions of this systematic review, and overcoming the gaps found, predictive individual-situational models can be generated to explain the causes of employee theft with a less biased approach.

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Appendix

Appendix A

Search Strategies.

1. ScienceDirect (Review articles; Research articles; Book chapters; Conference abstracts; Book reviews; Case reports; Conference info; Data articles; Discussion; Examinations; Mini reviews; Patent reports; Practice guidelines; Product reviews; Replication studies; Short communications; Other)
2. ProQuest (Revistas científicas OR Revistas profesionales OR Revistas de carácter general OR Otras fuentes OR Tesis doctorales y tesinas) NOT (Periódicos AND Servicios de prensa AND Informes AND Blogs, podcasts y sitios web) 2008-01-01 - 2018-12-31 (Inglés OR Español) NOT (Francés AND Portugués AND Alemán AND Rumano AND Turco AND Ruso AND Lituano)
3. EBSCOhost (Tipos de fuentes: Revistas, publicaciones académicas, publicaciones, publicaciones profesionales, informes, materiales de conferencia, documentos primarios, documento gubernamental)
4. Google Scholar (Patents and citations were excluded)
5. Open Access Theses and Dissertations
6. Open Gray
7. Transparency International
8. The Campbell Collaboration Online Library
9. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (CDSR) (Title Abstract Keyword)

Table 7

Search String Results

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
1	corruption	22081	244623	42413	711000	4422	335*	3931	7*	2*
2	"corruption"	22081	242933	22577	747000	4422	335	3931	7	2
3	corrupción	556	11382	1487	44800	388*	1*	34*	1*	1*
4	"corrupción"	556	11382	1487	47800	388	1	0	1	1
5	corruption and theft	1494	14184	1798	36000	31*	0	4867	0	1*
6	"corruption and theft"	41*	126*	34*	668	0	0	1*	0	0
7	corruption+theft	1484	116*	0	36100	5673	0	3931	0	0
8	corrupción y robo	57*	662	0	14900	1*	0	556	0	0
9	corrupción+robo	56	2*	0	14700	658	0	39*	0	0
10	"corrupción y robo"	0	3*	0	40*	0	0	0	0	0
11	counterproductive work behavior	6713	27491	1017	39700	144*	0	853	0	4*
12	"counterproductive work behavior"	333	1358	767	6710	99*	0	0	0	1*
13	comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo	1*	7*	0	527	0	0	98*	0	0
14	"comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	counterproductive work behavior and theft	342*	2706	37*	14500	0	0	4576	0	0
16	"counterproductive work behavior and theft"	4*	0	0	2*	0	0	0	0	0
17	counterproductive work behavior+theft	341	11*	0	14500	145*	0	872	0	0

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
18	comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo y robo	0	1*	0	74*	0	0	529	0	0
19	comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo+robo	0	0	0	74	0	0	101*	0	0
20	"comportamiento contraproductivo trabajo y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	deviant workplace behavior	1130	9729	109*	20000	38*	0	41*	0	0
22	deviant workplace+behavior	1122	625	0	20000	673	0	41	0	0
23	"deviant workplace behavior"	63*	253*	35*	991	5*	0	0	0	0
24	comportamiento desviado trabajo	87*	328*	3*	14300	1*	0	100*	0	0
25	comportamiento desviado+trabajo	87	0	0	14300	5236	0	100	0	0
26	"comportamiento desviado trabajo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
27	deviant workplace behavior and theft	232*	2130	5*	12000	0	0	4573	0	0
28	"deviant workplace behavior and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
29	deviant workplace behavior+theft	231	8*	0	12000	39*	0	80*	0	0
30	comportamiento desviado trabajo y robo	7*	46*	0	7980	0	0	529	0	0
31	comportamiento desviado trabajo+robo	7	0	0	7980	1*	0	103*	0	0
32	"comportamiento desviado trabajo y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
33	dishonesty workplace	330*	4212	22*	15400	9*	0	27*	0	0

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
34	dishonesty+workplace	327	4*	0	15400	13579	0	27	0	0
35	"dishonesty workplace"	1*	4*	0	9*	0	0	0	0	0
36	deshonestidad trabajo	19*	202*	1*	14700	1*	0	92*	0	0
37	deshonestidad+trabajo	19	0	0	14700	57711	0	92	0	0
38	"deshonestidad trabajo"	0	0	0	1*	0	0	0	0	0
39	dishonesty workplace and theft	107*	879	1*	8310	0	0	4573	0	0
40	"dishonesty workplace and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
41	dishonesty workplace+theft	107	19*	0	7960	13*	0	66*	0	0
42	deshonestidad trabajo y robo	6*	28*	0	5670	0	0	529	0	0
43	deshonestidad trabajo+robo	6	0	0	5670	1*	0	95*	0	0
44	"deshonestidad trabajo y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
45	employee deviance	1591	10713	173*	21000	46*	0	28*	0	3*
46	employee+deviance	1576	380*	173	21000	16376	0	28	0	0
47	"employee deviance"	50*	380	58*	1800	7*	0	0	0	0
48	desviación empleado	2874	1198	0	16000	18*	0	35*	0	3*
49	desviación+empleado	2823	0	0	16000	3097	0	35	0	0
50	"desviación empleado"	0	0	0	2*	0	0	0	0	0
51	employee deviance and theft	197*	2425	3*	15900	0	0	4573	0	0
52	"employee deviance and theft"	1*	1*	0	1*	0	0	0	0	0
53	employee deviance+theft	191	14*	0	15900	72*	0	65*	0	0
54	desviación empleado y robo	20*	35*	0	14400	0	0	556	0	0
55	desviación empleado+robo	20	0	0	14300	20*	0	40*	0	0
56	"desviación empleado y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
57	employee misconduct	1920	28448	1565	20800	33*	0	61*	1*	4*

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
58	employee+misconduct	1897	936	0	20800	15767	0	61	1	0
59	"employee misconduct"	99*	936	610	2200	1*	0	0	0	0
60	mala conducta empleado	408*	835	0	15500	0	0	41*	0	1*
61	mala conducta+empleado	400	0	0	15500	22*	0	41	0	0
62	"mala conducta empleado"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
63	employee misconduct and theft	384*	3887	65*	16000	0	0	4573	0	0
64	"employee misconduct and theft"	1*	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
65	employee misconduct+theft	380	7*	0	15900	63*	0	98*	0	0
66	mala conducta empleado y robo	20*	109*	0	14900	0	0	529	0	0
67	mala conducta empleado+robo	20	0	0	14900	0	0	45*	0	0
68	"mala conducta empleado y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
69	employee theft	5038	40781	2866	30400	30*	0	65*	0	3*
70	employee+theft	5002	2055	0	30400	16444	0	65	0	0
71	"employee theft"	269*	2055	1004	5340	11*	0	0	0	0
72	robo empleado	152*	614	0	14900	0	0	6*	1*	0
73	robo+empleado	150	0	0	14900	2725	0	6	1	0
74	"robo empleado"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
75	employee unethical conduct	2498	13954	22*	17600	11*	0	378*	1*	1*
76	employee+unethical conduct	2484	31*	0	17600	503	0	378	1	0
77	"employee unethical conduct"	1*	7*	3*	55*	0	0	0	0	0
78	conducta no ética empleado	453*	709	0	14800	0	0	1210	0	0
79	conducta no ética+empleado	436	0	0	14800	44*	0	1210	0	0
80	"conducta no ética empleado"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
81	employee unethical conduct and theft	371*	2246	0	14800	0	0	4575	0	0
82	"employee unethical conduct and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
83	employee unethical conduct+theft	369	1*	0	14800	11*	0	408*	0	0
84	conducta no ética empleado y robo	12*	52*	0	14800	0	0	1456	0	0
85	conducta no ética empleado+robo	11	0	0	14900	0	0	1212	0	0
86	"conducta no ética empleado y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*
87	unethical behavior organizations	4747	26285	119*	20200	43*	0	199*	0	0
88	unethical behavior+organizations	4708	78*	0	20200	344*	0	199	0	0
89	"unethical behavior organizations"	10*	12*	1*	42*	0	0	0	0	0
90	comportamiento no ético organizaciones	294*	1257	0	15000	2*	0	1241	0	0
91	comportamiento no ético+organizaciones	284	0	0	15000	147*	0	1241	0	0
92	"comportamiento no ético organizaciones"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*
93	unethical behavior organizations and theft	476*	3215	3*	15900	0	0	4573	0	0
94	"unethical behavior organizations and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
95	unethical behavior organizations+theft	472	0	0	15900	45*	0	237*	0	0

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
96	comportamiento no ético organizaciones y robo	6*	72*	0	14700	0	0	1456	0	0
97	comportamiento no ético organizaciones+robo	6	0	0	14800	2*	0	1243	0	0
98	"comportamiento no ético organizaciones y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*
99	unethical conduct organizations	4961	20794	16*	21500	17*	0	476*	0	3*
100	"unethical conduct organizations"	2*	1*	0	2*	0	0	0	0	0
101	unethical conduct+organizations	4880	24*	0	21500	151*	0	476	0	0
102	conducta no ética organizaciones	319*	1526	0	17200	4*	0	1242	0	0
103	conducta no ética+organizaciones	309	3*	0	17200	40*	0	1242	0	0
104	"conducta no ética organizaciones"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*
105	unethical conduct organizations and theft	467*	2782	1*	16100	0	0	4575	0	0
106	unethical conduct organizations+theft	464	0	0	16100	17*	0	507	0	0
107	"unethical conduct organizations and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
108	conducta no ética organizaciones y robo	11*	96*	0	14900	0	0	1456	0	0
109	conducta no ética organizaciones+robo	11	0	1*	14800	4*	0	1244	0	0
110	"conducta no ética organizaciones y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
111	ethical decision making	56439	250687	6769	1200000	1257	64*	832	1	9*
112	"ethical decision making"	1365	11234	5442	29500	372*	20*	0	0	9
113	toma decisiones éticas	2280	1581	20*	16100	11*	0	58*	0	1*
114	"toma decisiones éticas"	0	1*	0	36*	0	0	0	0	2*
115	ethical decision making and theft	1325	12504	19*	29100	0	0	4575	0	0
116	"ethical decision making and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
117	ethical decision making+theft	1315	6*	0	28200	1257	0	850	0	0
118	toma decisiones éticas y robo	31*	83*	0	14600	0	0	529	0	0
119	toma decisiones éticas+robo	31	0	0	14700	12*	0	63*	0	0
120	"toma decisiones éticas y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2*
121	illegal behavior workplace	2297	18221	3*	30500	6*	0	285*	0	1*
122	"illegal behavior workplace"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
123	illegal behavior+workplace	2271	26*	0	30500	464*	0	285	0	0
124	comportamiento ilegal trabajo	170*	1709	0	15300	4*	0	110*	0	0
125	comportamiento ilegal+trabajo	169	1*	0	15300	5231	0	110	0	0
126	"comportamiento ilegal trabajo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
127	illegal behavior workplace and theft	487*	3792	0	16300	0	0	4573	0	0
128	"illegal behavior workplace and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
129	illegal behavior workplace+theft	482	36*	0	16700	13*	0	319*	0	0
130	comportamiento ilegal trabajo y robo	27*	236*	0	14700	0	0	531	0	0

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
131	comportamiento ilegal trabajo+robo	26	0	0	14700	4*	0	113*	0	0
132	"comportamiento ilegal trabajo y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
133	integrity and theft	3123	21110	436*	38300	0	0	4624	0	0
134	integrity+theft	3081	4*	0	46500	17563	0	1528	0	0
135	"integrity and theft"	6*	2*	0	12*	0	0	0	0	0
136	integridad y robo	95*	585	0	14700	2*	0	530	0	0
137	integridad+robo	95	0	0	14700	1171	0	82*	0	0
138	"integridad y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
139	kickback	856	15066	8163	13000	14*	0	7*	0	0
140	"kickback"	856	7183	3452	13000	14	0	7	0	0
141	soborno	61*	721	56*	14500	10*	0	82*	0	1*
142	"soborno"	61	721	32*	14200	10	0	82	0	1
143	kickback and theft	128*	1270	267*	2050	0	0	4574	0	0
144	kickback+theft	128	0	0	2050	1289	0	46*	0	0
145	"kickback and theft"	0	0	123*	1*	0	0	4574	0	0
146	soborno y robo	9*	68*	1*	7700	0	0	531	0	0
147	soborno+robo	9	0	1*	7700	281*	0	86*	0	0
148	"soborno y robo"	0	0	0	3*	0	0	0	0	1*
149	misconduct organizations	3450	32996	153*	29400	30*	0	180*	1*	2*
150	"misconduct organizations"	7*	10*	0	49*	0	0	0	0	0
151	misconduct+organizations	3382	10*	0	29400	47807	0	180	1	0
152	mala conducta organizaciones	235*	1084	0	15400	0	0	140*	0	2*

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
153	mala conducta+organizaciones	231	0	0	15400	34*	0	140	0	0
154	"mala conducta organizaciones"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
155	misconduct organizations and theft	505	4527	0	15600	0	0	4573	0	0
156	"misconduct organizations and theft"	0	0	0	0	1*	0	0	0	0
157	misconduct organizations+theft	502	0	0	16200	36*	0	218*	0	0
158	mala conducta organizaciones y robo	17*	130*	0	13600	0	0	529	0	0
159	mala conducta organizaciones+robo	17	0	0	13500	0	0	143*	0	0
160	"mala conducta organizaciones y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
161	organizational misbehavior	1759	6960	27*	16100	17*	0	7*	0	2*
162	organizational+misbehavior	1705	168*	27	16100	37406	0	7	0	0
163	"organizational misbehavior"	39*	168	21*	676	3*	0	0	0	0
164	mal comportamiento organizacional	101*	780	1*	15900	1*	0	70*	0	1*
165	mal comportamiento+organizacional	99	81*	0	15900	151*	0	70	0	0
166	"mal comportamiento organizacional"	1*	3*	0	11*	0	0	0	0	0
167	organizational misbehavior and theft	185*	1315	0	12400	0	0	4573	0	0
168	"organizational misbehavior and theft"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

(continued)

Table 7 (continued)

#	Search String	ScienceDirect	ProQuest	EBSCOhost	Google Scholar	OATD	Open Gray	TI	TCCOL	CDSR
169	organizational misbehavior+theft	182	1*	0	12400	43*	0	46*	0	0
170	mal comportamiento organizacional y robo	7*	62*	0	12600	0	0	566	0	0
171	mal comportamiento organizacional+robo	7	0	0	12600	0	0	75*	0	0
172	"mal comportamiento organizacional y robo"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
173	workplace steal	1179	7004	15*	17900	3*	0	34*	0	0
174	workplace+steal	1165	3*	0	17900	13726	0	34	0	0
175	"workplace steal"	0	3*	0	1*	0	0	0	0	0
176	workplace theft	1821	11677	137*	27500	26*	1*	55*	0	0
177	workplace+theft	1801	108*	137	27500	14615	0	55	0	0
178	"workplace theft"	21*	108	33*	443*	1*	0	0	0	0
179	robo trabajo	436*	2940	2*	16100	33*	0	95*	0	0
180	robo+trabajo	433	0	0	16100	57948	0	95	0	0
181	"robo trabajo"	0	0	0	7*	0	0	0	0	0
		211083	1161393	103813	4751747	350661	757	120643	25	76
		7383*	3123*	2059*	791*	3693*	421*	5373*	13*	63*

Note. Total Results: 6700198. *Total Search: 22919.

Appendix B

Table 8

Excluded Studies

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
1	Agboola and Salawu, 2011	Qualitative
2	Ahmad, Z., & Norhashim, M. (2008)	Three theft items included with deception
3	Akinbode, 2017	Three theft items included with deception
4	Alias, Mohd Rasdi, Ismail, and Abu Samah, 2013	DB analysis
5	Alias et al., 2012	DB analysis
6	Andreoli and Lefkowitz, 2009	No theft
7	Anjum and Parvez, 2013	CWB analysis
8	Arli and Leo, 2017	Theft by customers
9	Armantier and Boly, 2011	No employees, job candidates
10	Bai, Lin, and Wang, 2016	No theft, only CWB
11	Baka, 2015	CWB analysis
12	Balducci, Schaufeli, and Fraccaroli, 2011	No theft
13	Barbaranelli, Fida, and Gualandri, 2013	No theft, only CWB
14	Barnes, Schaubroeck, Huth, and Ghumman, 2011	No theft, only CWB
15	Barr and Serra, 2009	No employees, students
16	Barsky, 2011	No theft, only CWB
17	Bauer and Spector, 2015	CWB analysis
18	Bayram, Gursakal, and Bilgel, 2009	CWB analysis
19	Bibi, Karim, and ud Din, 2013	CWB analysis
20	Bisel, Kelley, Ploeger, and Messersmith, 2011	No theft
21	Blumen, Bayona, Givoli, Pecker, and Fine, 2017	No theft, only CWB
22	Boddy, 2014	No theft, only CWB
23	Bonny, Goode, and Lacey, 2015	Fraud statistics
24	Bordia, Restubog, and Tang, 2008	No theft, only CWB
25	Brimecombe, 2012	CWB analysis

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
26	Browning, 2008	No theft, only CWB
27	Büchner, Freytag, González, and Güth, 2008	Did not specify participants
28	Bülbül and Ergün, 2017	No theft, only CWB
29	Burns et al., 2012	Did not evaluate individual dimension
30	Campos-Ortiz, 2011	No theft
31	Cant, Wiid, and Kallier, 2013	Perception of moral behavior
32	Carlsmith, Wilson, and Gilbert, 2008	No theft
33	Chernyak-Hai and Tziner, 2014	DB analysis
34	Clark, 2010	DB analysis
35	Cohen, Panter, and Turan, 2013	CWB analysis
36	Cohen, Panter, Turan, Morse, and Kim, 2014	CWB analysis
37	Cojuharencu, Shteynberg, Gelfand, and Schminke, 2012	No theft, only CWB
38	Coyne, Gentile, Born, Ersoy, and Vakola, 2013	No theft, only CWB
39	Dajani and Mohamad, 2017	CWB analysis
40	de Vries and van Gelder, 2015	An item theft Ashton scale, 1998
41	DeCelles, DeRue, Margolis, and Ceranic, 2012	No theft, only CWB
42	De Graaf and Huberts, 2008	Qualitative
43	Demir, 2011	DB analysis
44	Deshpande and Joseph, 2009	No theft, only CWB
45	Douhou, Magnus, and van Soest, 2011	Perception of crimes along with theft
46	Drugov, Hamman, and Serra, 2014	No employees, students
47	Dumazert and Plane, 2012	No theft, only CWB
48	Effelsberg, Solga, and Gurt, 2014	No theft, only CWB
49	El Akremi, Vandenberghe, and Camerman, 2010	DB analysis
50	Eschleman, Bowling, and LaHuis, 2015	DB analysis
51	Fagbohunbe, Akinbode, and Ayodeji, 2012	DB analysis
52	Fatima, Atif, Saqib, and Haider, 2012	No theft, only CWB
53	Feldman, Lian, Kosinski, and Stillwell, 2017	No theft

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
54	Ferreira and Nascimento, 2016	DB analysis
55	Ferris, Spence, Brown, and Heller, 2012	No theft
56	Fida et al., 2015	CWB analysis
57	Fine, Horowitz, Weigler, and Basis, 2010	Three CWB items, one for theft
58	Fox, Spector, Goh, Bruursema, and Kessler, 2012	No theft, only CWB
59	Furutan, 2018	Five items theft Sims scale, 1993
60	Galperin, 2012	No theft, only CWB
61	Gino and Ariely, 2012	Cheat/students
62	Gino et al., 2009	Cheat/students
63	Gino and Bazerman, 2009	Cheat/students
64	Gino and Pierce, 2009a	Cheat/students
65	Gino and Pierce, 2009b	Cheat/students
66	Gino et al., 2011	Cheat/students
67	Goh and Kong, 2016	Qualitative
68	Goodenough, 2008	DB analysis
69	Gorsira, Steg, Denkers, and Huisman, 2018	No theft
70	Gravert, 2013	Cheat/students
71	Gualandri, 2012	CWB analysis
72	Guay et al., 2016	DB analysis
73	Guo, Yuan, Archer, and Connelly, 2011	No theft
74	Guo, 2012	No theft, only CWB
75	Guzel and Ayazlar, 2012	DB analysis
76	Harold, Oh, Holtz, Han, and Giacalone, 2016	No theft, only CWB
77	Harvey et al., 2017	No theft
78	Heine, Takemoto, Moskalenko, Lasaleta, and Henrich, 2008	Cheat/students
79	Huangfu, Lv, Sheng, and Shi, 2017	CWB analysis
80	Hussain, 2014	An item theft scale Kelloway et al., 2002

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
81	Iboro, 2011	Perception of aesthetics and theft
82	Idolor, 2010	Perception of theft and types of fraud
83	Ishaq and Shamsher, 2016	Two items theft Peterson scale, 2002
84	Jaakson, Vadi, and Bauman-Vitolina, 2018	Only one item of theft
85	Jaakson, Vadi, Bauman-Vitolina, and Sumilo, 2017	Only one item of theft
86	Jensen, Opland, and Ryan, 2010	No theft, only CWB
87	Jonason, Slomski, and Partyka, 2012	No theft
88	Kaptein, 2011	No theft, only CWB
89	Keeley and Nelson, 2009	Did not evaluate situational dimension
90	Kennedy, 2014	Perception characteristics of theft
91	Kennedy, 2016b	Typologies of theft
92	Kennedy, 2017	No causes of theft, strategies/Qualitative
93	Kennedy and Benson, 2016	Emotional perception victims of theft
94	Khan, Quratulain, and Crawshaw, 2013	CWB analysis
95	Khokhar and Zia-ur-Rehman, 2017	DB analysis
96	Kisamore, Jawahar, Liguori, Mharapara, and Stone, 2010	CWB analysis
97	Krippel, Henderson, Keene, Levi, and Converse, 2008	Theft perception statistics
98	Kura, 2016	DB analysis
99	Lambsdorff and Frank, 2010	No employees, students
100	Le Roy, Bastounis, and Poussard, 2012	No theft, only CWB
101	Lin and Chen, 2011	No theft, only CWB
102	Mann, Budworth, and Ismaila, 2012	No theft, only CWB
103	Marcus, Wagner, Poole, Powell, and Carswell, 2009	DB analysis
104	Marquardt and Hoeger, 2009	No theft
105	Marteache Solans, 2013	Airport theft statistics
106	Mazar et al., 2008	Cheat/students
107	Michel and Hargis, 2017	DB analysis
108	Moore et al., 2012	No theft

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
109	Moorthy, 2013	Did not evaluate individual dimension
110	Nasir and Bashir, 2012	No theft, only CWB
111	Nasurdin, Ahmad, and Razalli, 2014	DB analysis
112	Niehaus and Sukhtankar, 2013	No theft, only bribe
113	O'Brien, Minjock, Colarelli, and Yang, 2018	Perceptions of leniency towards theft
114	O'Fallon and Butterfield, 2011	Academic UB
115	O'Fallon and Butterfield, 2012	Academic UB
116	O'Neill and Hastings, 2011	DB analysis
117	Olabimitan and Alausa, 2014	DB analysis
118	Omar, Halim, Zainah, and Farhadi, 2011	DB analysis
119	Pearsall and Ellis, 2011	Cheat/students
120	Piar Chand and Chand, 2014	CWB analysis
121	Poulston, 2008	Only one item of theft
122	Qiu and Peschek, 2012	DB analysis
123	Rahim and Nasurdin, 2008	DB analysis
124	Rahman, Ferdausy, and Karan, 2012	DB analysis
125	Raman et al., 2016	CWB analysis
126	Reisel, Probst, Chia, Maloles, and König, 2010	No theft, only CWB
127	Resick, Hargis, Shao, and Dust, 2013	DB analysis
128	Reynolds et al., 2010	No theft
129	Roopa, Nanjundeswaraswamy, and Swamy, 2016	CWB analysis
130	Rosario-Hernández y Rovira, 2014	No theft, only CWB
131	Roxana, 2013	DB analysis
132	Ruankaew, 2012	Two items theft Spencer scale, 2010
133	Sakurai and Jex, 2012	DB analysis
134	Saleem and Gopinath, 2015	CWB analysis
135	Samnani, Salamon, and Singh, 2014	DB analysis
136	Sayers, Sears, Kelly, and Harbke, 2011	No theft, only CWB

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
137	Schikora, 2010	No causes of theft, strategies
138	Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim, 2011a	DB analysis
139	Shamsudin, Subramaniam, and Ibrahim, 2011b	DB analysis
140	Shigihara, 2013	Qualitative
141	Shoss, Jundt, Kobler, and Reynolds, 2016	No theft
142	Southey, 2010	Qualitative, metodológico
143	Sparks and Siemens, 2014	No theft
144	Spector and Zhou, 2014	CWB analysis
145	Spencer, 2010	Two items theft Spencer scale, 2010
146	Stewart et al., 2009	No theft, only CWB
147	Stieger, Kastner, Voracek, and Furnham, 2011	Four items theft from four scales
148	Sulsky, Marcus, and MacDonald, 2016	No employees, students
149	Sunday, 2013	DB analysis
150	Szczygieł, and Bazińska, 2013	No theft
151	Tang and Chen, 2008	Six items theft scale love of money
152	Tang, Chen, and Sutarso, 2008	No theft, only CWB
153	Tang and Liu, 2012	No theft, only CWB
154	Tepper et al., 2009	DB analysis
155	Thau, Bennett, Mitchell, and Marrs, 2009	DB analysis
156	Tuclea, Vrânceanu, and Filip, 2015	No theft
157	Umphress, Ren, Bingham, and Gogus, 2009	No employees, students
158	Vatankhah, Raoofi, and Ghobadnezhad, 2017	DB analysis
159	Veldhuizen, 2013	No employees, students
160	Wilkin, 2011	No employees, students
161	Wilkin and Connelly, 2015	No employees, students
162	Wilks, 2011	Three different scales
163	Xu, Wang, Liu, Li, and Ouyang, 2013	No theft, only CWB
164	Yan, Zhou, Long, and Ji, 2014	No theft, only CWB

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

#	Study	Reason for exclusion
165	Yang, Johnson, Zhang, Spector, and Xu, 2013	DB analysis
166	Zagenczyk, Smallfield, Scott, Galloway, and Purvis, 2017	No theft
167	Zhang and Deng, 2016	CWB analysis
168	Zoghbi, 2010a	DB analysis
169	Zoghbi, 2010b	DB analysis
170	Zoghbi and Suárez, 2014	DB analysis
171	Zribi and Souaï, 2013	DB analysis

Appendix C

Model E-mail Sent to Researchers.

Appreciated Dr. XXX, receive a cordial greeting.

My name is Fernando Velandia, I am a psychologist and I am currently studying the last semester of a Master's Degree in Psychology, Catholic University of Colombia. Under the tutoring of the research teacher Mónica García, we are working on the thesis with the guidance of a systematic review. Our objective is to gather empirical evidence about the predictors of the theft committed by people in their role as employees of any type of organization. This search is being done with documents published or not, in English or Spanish, between 2008 and the present, which involves in its methodological designs any type of theft that the person could commit in his role as an employee.

We value your work as a researcher and for your recognized contribution in the field, we were willing to contact you, thanking you if you know of any study that meets these conditions to be analyzed in our thesis.

Thank you so much for your attention to the present.